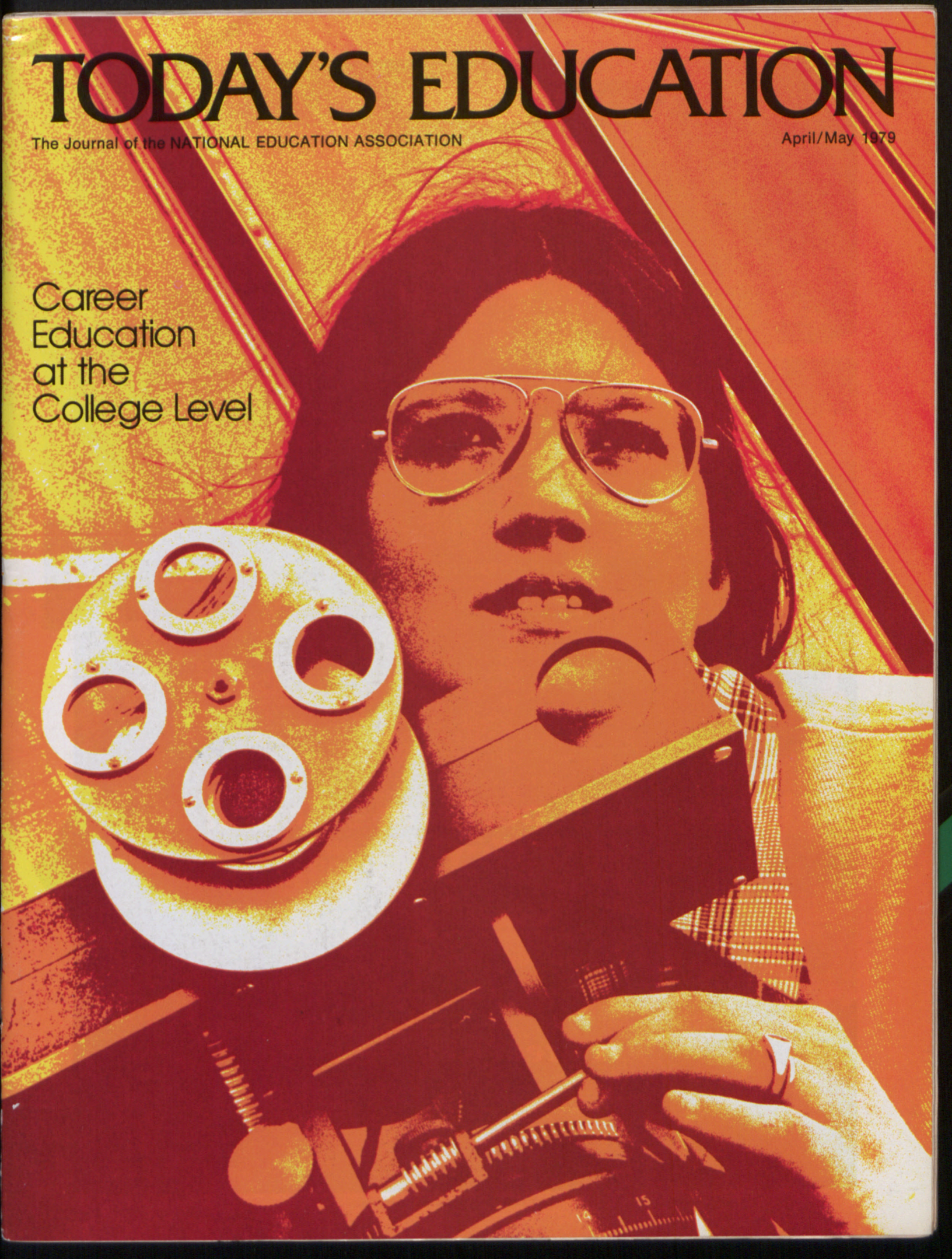
TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

April/May 1979

Career Education at the College Level



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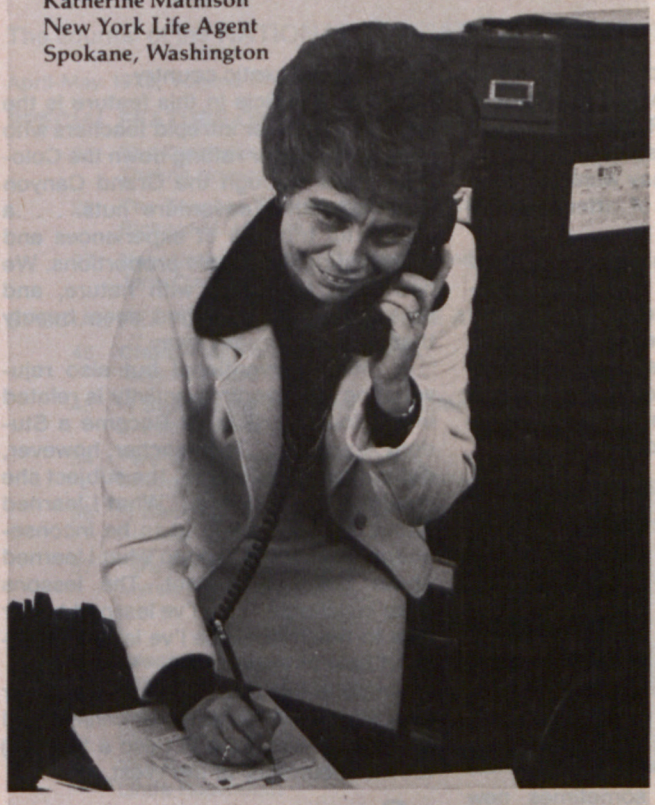

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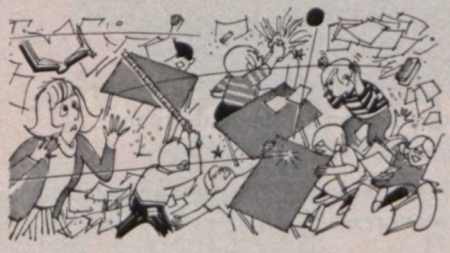
CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 44

In This Issue

This month's cover features a college student, a solar collector, and a pyrheliometer. With the latter, the student is measuring the sun's radiant energy. Note the experimental solar panels behind her.

Projects like this one at the University of Maryland combine liberal arts and science education with career education and an acquaintance with some of the problems of the vital energy industry. Such projects meet Clifton Wharton's specification that all education should be "more related than it has been to manpower needs and the demands of the economy."

However, as Chancellor Wharton of New York State points out in his article titled "Career Education at the College Level," we should never forget "that the main purpose of higher education—the purpose that makes all the efforts and anguish worthwhile—is to help build a better society by graduating better people with better ideas. As a by-product of carrying out that large and critical task, we can help men and women get better jobs, but we should never confuse the by-product with our central purpose."



Also in this month's issue, we are pleased to present two special features. The first one digs into that perennially hot topic: discipline.

The introduction to this feature reports on a task force's recommendations resulting from a study by lay and professional persons of the types and causes of disruptive behavior in the schools. The introduction also tells how to get a copy of the full task-force report.

Second in the feature is an article describing the LEAST approach to discipline. This article is a dramatic compression of an all-day workshop devoted to the LEAST approach to classroom management, which was originally developed by Robert R. Carkhuff. You'll be intrigued by the description of discipline steps, and you may want to follow up on the possibility of attending the workshop.

The third article in this feature is titled "Negotiating Student Discipline Policy." It discusses how teachers in the 31 states that permit collective bargaining can try to ensure that their district's student discipline policy is shaped and implemented in a manner that is effective, unambiguous, and fair.

The second special feature in this issue investigates teachers' summertime activities. What are some ways that teachers spend their summers to recharge their batteries and bring back to their classrooms renewed vigor—and sometimes new teaching insights and materials?

The first article in this feature is a teacher's story of an exciting NEA tour in China. The author was a member of the first group of NEA members to visit China and see for themselves "what had been hidden for so long."

For example, she writes, "On the north side of the square, surrounded by walls and a moat, is the red-roofed Forbidden City of the Emperors. . . .Inside the Palace Museum, guided through an intricate maze of courtyards, gardens, and treasure houses, we admired the delicate carving and polychromatic tile walls. . . ."

After reporting on many other fascinating sights and experiences, she concludes by saying: "Marco Polo was right: "the impressions of such a vast country . . . leaves travelers benumbed and mistrustful of their own perceptions."

The second article in this feature is the story of another teacher who went on an offbeat NEA-Earthwatch expedition to Nepal to study the habits of rhesus monkeys. Working with research scientists, she recorded the eating habits of rhesus monkeys, which are used extensively as experimental animals. In addition to her scientific study, she learned much about the geography and culture of an exotic country.

The third article in this feature is the story of two other intrepid teachers who went white-water rafting down the Colorado River through the Grand Canyon with "33 other adventure nuts. . . .a wonderful trip, full of experiences and surroundings of heroic proportions. We had lived intimately with nature, and hour after hour, we had seen beauty that took our breath away."

A more conventional but also rejuvenating summertime activity is related in the fourth article, "I Became a Student Again. . ." This teacher, however, did not enroll in English, the subject she teaches, but in dance. "What I learned about dance turned out to be inconsequential in comparison to what I learned about being a student. The lessons were invaluable. . . .I've learned better how to teach because I've learned firsthand how to learn."

Finally in this feature, another teacher tells about his recreational vehicle and the trip he and his wife (also a teacher) took last summer in the West.

Some of the other major articles in this issue include:

- "Public Schools in the Wake of Proposition 13." The voters have spoken, and in many states left behind restraints on state/local fiscal activity. What does the future for school finance look like now?
- "Forecast for the 80's." A broader look at our schools and society in the next decade. "The 80's can bring better times for both learners and teachers."
- "Class Size and Learning." A landmark research study demonstrates that smaller classes do have a positive relationship to student achievement. Single reprints of this article are available from the NEA.
- "The Teacher and the Rand Study." It shows that federal funding should be used to support local school systems in improving educational achievement, not to dictate to them what local education policies or program should be. Local teachers must be involved in the process.

This is the final issue of *Today's Education* for this school year. Please send us your suggestions so we can make next year's issues even better. Thanks for your help.

—WAG.

TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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Reporter Edwin Newman explores this nationwide epidemic.

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NBC News

Following the broadcast of this NBC News Special Report last December, NBC received hundreds of requests from students, parents and teachers for a repeat showing.

In response to this unprecedented demand, and as part of NBC's commitment to the International Year of the Child, NBC will air this special again, Tuesday, April 17, from 4-5 PM Eastern Time (please check your TV listings for time and channel in your area).

As a public service, NBC has arranged with its distributor, Films Incorporated, that all usual licensing fees for this documentary will be paid by NBC. Any non-profit educational institution may obtain a free license to videotape READING, WRITING AND REEFER off-the-air on that date by completing the following agreement and mailing it to Films Incorporated on or before April 16, 1979.

This program is recommended by the National Education Association.

To further aid educators in making effective use of this program, NBC has prepared a study guide. For free copies, while the supply lasts, write NBC: READING, WRITING AND REEFER Study Guide, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10020.

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Editorial

Teacher Centers

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

The federally supported Teacher Center Program that got under way last fall did not come about accidentally. Its roots lie in the dissatisfaction of teachers with in-service programs that they—whose needs such programs are supposed to meet—have had little or no involvement in planning.

The Teacher Center Program, part of the legislation called PL94-482, was passed because of perseverance and hard work by NEA and by a sympathetic majority of members of the Congress. It provides teachers a high degree of control over aspects of their own professional development.

Teachers have learned by direct experience that submissiveness serves neither democracy nor the teaching profession. On the contrary, we can serve both causes by acquiring the power to make effective choices in the processes of decision making that affect our classrooms and, hence, our opportunities to create productive experiences for students.

It is, consequently, in both the public interest and the interest of the teaching profession that teachers be heavily involved in developing programs for improving their own practice. In my view, this isn't a lofty ideal but a practical imperative. There must be a process that guarantees to teachers their participation in the design of such programs, so that they can be confident that their wishes and their needs for improvement will be served. There must also be places where teachers can go to put such programs into action. Teacher centers meet both these objectives. With enactment of the Teacher Center Program, we have for the first time a federal law that makes it possible to place some professional development activities in the hands of local teachers—an unquestionably historic event.

The united teaching profession will do everything in its power to see that the Teacher Center Program succeeds. As issues and problems arise, state and local affiliates will take appropriate constructive action on their levels, as will NEA at the national level.

Last year, several hundred proposals were submitted for teacher center grants, and 61 of them were funded. It is critical that these first centers develop in the right climate and have the time necessary for success. Such success will be a powerful basis on which to build adequate funding for a comprehensive Teacher Center Program.

There has been some talk about these centers' being pilot programs. At NEA, we have never viewed them that way. For one thing, we are committed to the idea that what has been initiated will continue and will expand. For another, we believe that each teacher center will be unique because it will provide for the needs of the particular teachers it serves. Thus a program appropriate for one locality may not necessarily be useful as a model for teachers in the community next door or one across the country.

Therefore, we do not expect the Congress to end funding, forcing existing centers to close or to seek funding from other sources. We expect the Congress not only to maintain the present centers but also to provide the additional funds necessary to allow all teachers to benefit from such programs.

We think the present competitive aspect of the program will become history. After all, why shouldn't there be at least one teacher center in every Congressional district? Despite the program's modest beginning in terms of funding, we look ahead to where it should go, and we will do what is necessary to help get it there.

Today the schools are facing severe problems. I don't need to identify these problems for you—you live with them. Central to the resolution of many of those problems is the opportunity for teachers to be directly involved in developing programs for self-renewal. In a society such as ours, where rapid change is the norm, all careers require opportunity for continued learning. Teachers now have an opportunity to break out of former patterns and lead. We must take that opportunity and make the most of it. □

For the story of one teacher center, see page 39.

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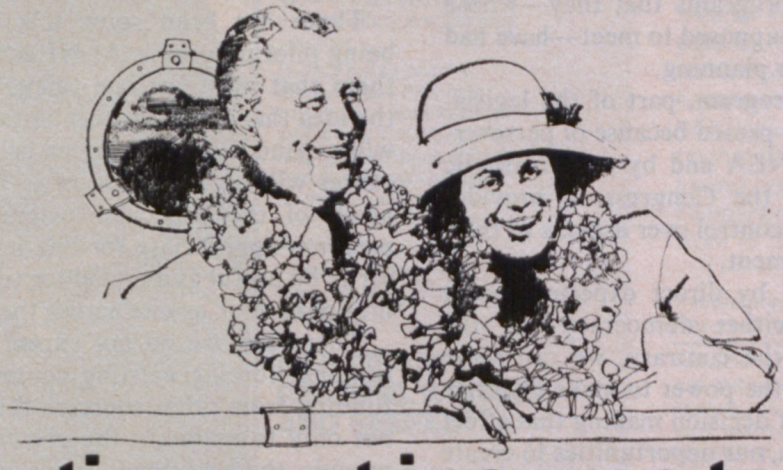

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Trends

NEA Urges Investigation of Puerto Rican School System

Responding to an NEA request for Congressional hearings, Rep. Carl Perkins (D-Ky.), chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee, has asked the General Accounting Office to investigate the Puerto Rican education system. Puerto Rico receives federal funds, including financial aid to education, and NEA is concerned about possible misuse of the U.S. payments for political purposes. Both the academic organization and the physical plant of the schools warrant investigation.

An NEA study of Puerto Rican schools found many demoralized teachers who believe that political favoritism has replaced scholarship and achievement as the standard for getting and keeping a teaching position. The study also found deteriorated conditions and a fundamental lack of necessary teaching resources, from decent classrooms to books and supplies.

NEA's task force report included five major recommendations for improvement of the schools, from reorganization to physical clean-up.

High Court Weighs State Laws Controlling Federal Aid

NEA and 31 other national education, labor, and civil rights organizations have urged the U.S. Supreme Court to overturn a 1976 Pennsylvania law. The law mandates that federal funds cannot be spent in the state until they have been approved and "reappropriated" by the state legislature. Thus, it gives the legislature the power to choose which federal programs can be funded in the state.

Pennsylvania's Governor Shapp is challenging the constitutionality of the state law. Lower courts have found in favor of his challenge.

In a friend of the court brief, the groups ask the Court to review the case, *Shapp vs. Sloan.* The brief argues that the Constitution protects the right of Congress to spend money in the national interest and that it specifies that federal laws supersede state laws when they conflict.

Fulbright Offers International Exchange

Applications for most Fulbright-Hays awards for university teaching and advanced research abroad must be submitted by June 1 or July 1, depending on their location, 12 to 18 months before the grant period is to begin, reports the Council for International Exchange of Scholars. A few positions are available at other times.

Basic eligibility requirements are U.S. citizenship; for most lecturing positions, postdoctoral college or university teaching experience; and for research positions, a doctoral degree or recognized professional standing as demonstrated by faculty rank, publications, compositions, exhibitions, or the like. Fluency in a foreign language is required for some awards.

The terms of awards vary from country to country; generally, they consist of a maintenance allowance for the grantee and family and round trip travel for the grantee.

For more information, write the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, Suite 300, Eleven Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036.

Hispanics' Position in Work Force Varies

Unemployment and other employment-related characteristics vary considerably among Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and other Hispanic workers, says the *Monthly Labor Review* of the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. In 1977, the unemployment rate of Puerto Ricans was 13.6 percent; of Mexicans, 10.1 percent; of Cubans, 8.8 percent; of other Hispanics, 8.6 percent. The rate of all U.S. workers was 7.0 percent.

Regardless of ethnicity, employed Hispanics tend to be more concentrated in lower-paid, less-skilled occupations than the overall work force. Hispanic Americans comprise about 4.5 percent of all employed U.S. Americans.

Fellowships in Humanities Are Offered

The National Endowment for the Humanities is offering teachers fellowships in three categories for 1980-81. Two categories are for independent study and research in the humanities and carry stipends of up to $10,000 for six months and up to $20,000 for 12 months. Category A is open to all scholars, teachers, and other interpreters of the humanities; Category B, to people engaged primarily in teaching undergraduates. Category C fellowships give teachers in undergraduate and two-year colleges the chance to take part in seminars by distinguished scholars and to undertake study and research of their own choosing. It is open only to members of departments that do not award the Ph.D; its stipend is up to $20,000 for 12 months' tenure.

For applications, write the Division of Fellowships, Mail Stop 101, National Endowment for the Humanities, 806 15th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20015.

Postsecondary Enrollments Fall Slightly

For the second time in three years, enrollments in U.S. colleges and universities have decreased. According to preliminary figures from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, fewer than 11.4 million students enrolled in institutions of higher education last fall, an overall decline of 0.5 percent from the year before. Enrollments in two-year institutions rose, but only by a negligible proportion.

The number of women enrolled increased 1.6 percent, however, and according to the Women's College Coalition, enrollments during the same period at 53 women's colleges rose an average of 2.5 percent and the size of their freshman classes increased by 3.4 percent.

The number of men enrolled decreased 2.6 percent, says NCES. The number of students enrolled full-time decreased, but part-time enrollments increased.

Department of Energy Funds Energy Workshops for Teachers

High school and college teachers will be invited to participate in a nationwide program of 63 teacher workshops in energy education this summer. The U.S. Department of Energy is the sponsor.

More than 2,000 high school and college teachers will be selected for the one- to three-week workshops.

The workshops will provide teachers with factual information about major energy resources, supply and conservation technologies, and related economic

(continued on page 8)

Trends

(continued)

and environmental concerns.

For further information, write to Dr. Chris Kjeldsen, program manager, faculty development programs, Educational Programs Division, Department of Energy, Mail Stop 8G031, Washington, DC 20585.

Poverty Now Affects More Children

In 1975 about 17 percent of all children lived in poverty, according to the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare—an increase from a low of about 14 percent in 1969. Of the families below the 1975 poverty line, 4 million were White (8 percent of all White families); 1.5 million were Black (27 percent of Black families); and 600,000 were of Spanish origin (25 percent of families of Spanish origin).

Young U.S. Americans Know About Health, but Not First Aid

Most young U.S. Americans know good health practices, but many do not know how to handle emergencies and accidents, says the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Its 1977 study of 17-year-olds and young adults aged 26 through 35 shows that most understand concepts such as good nutrition.

However, 40 to 50 percent of the teenagers do not understand the dangers of alcohol or obesity. Large percentages of both groups do not know how to stop bleeding, give artificial respiration, or treat burns.

In accident prevention, almost all consider it important to handle electrical appliances with dry hands, post a list of emergency phone numbers, and use a seat belt even for short drives.

NAEP's report, *Checkup*, may be obtained from NAEP, Suite 700, 1860 Lincoln St., Denver, CO 80295.

U.S. Math Students Score Second in Math Olympiad

Top U.S. high school mathematics students have taken second place in the Twentieth International Mathematical Olympiad. Romania captured top honors and Great Britain came in third among the 18 nations competing. Vietnam won fourth place; Czechoslovakia, fifth.

The United States has never placed lower than third since it joined the competition in 1974. Last year it was first.

Bilingual Children Solve Problems Better than Monolinguals

Local schoolchildren who speak both English and Spanish seem to have more highly developed problem-solving skills than their classmates who speak only one language, according to research by professors at the University of San Antonio at Austin.

Bilingual children in the San Antonio area elementary schools come up with more, and more creative, answers to a given science problem than do children who speak only English, the researchers report. In addition, as children's problem-solving ability increases, their level of language development does also.

A possible explanation is Piaget's theory that when a problem is recognized, the internal struggle necessary to find a solution furthers cognitive development.

The Texas researchers say other studies by other researchers are leading to the same conclusions.

Black Enrollment in Medical Schools Falls

Black enrollment in the nation's 124 medical schools has dropped, despite an increase in overall medical school enrollment, reports the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Black students now comprise 6.4 percent of the freshman class; the figure for last year was 6.7 percent.

Among the nation's 62,242 medical school students, 86.4 percent are White, 5.7 percent are Black, 3.6 percent are Hispanic, 2.6 percent are Asian-American, 0.3 percent are Native American, and 1.4 percent are from other countries.

Antiguan Teachers Get International Support

NEA and the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) have appealed to the government of Antigua and Barbuda to settle its differences with the Antigua Union of Teachers (AUT). The current conflict began more than a year ago, over transfer of the AUT president out of the service of the Ministry of Education.

In June 1978, after other methods of protest had proved ineffective, the AUT picketed the Ministry and 13 teachers were arrested and suspended on 20 percent of salary. The administration has used delays to prevent any change in their situation and transferred massive numbers of teachers to different schools in September. The president of AUT was arrested for addressing a public meeting without police permission and has been suspended on 20 percent of his salary. In addition the secretary general of AUT has been assaulted.

White Males Still Dominate TV

Minorities and women continue to be poorly cast and underrepresented both on the TV screen and behind it, a new report from the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights says. The report compares 1977 data with data for 1969 through 1974.

In 40 major commercial and public stations, the study found no significant increases in employment of women or minorities. In prime time dramatic programs, women and minorities have a disproportionately high number of immature or demeaning roles. Minorities are shown more often than Whites as service workers and students. The stereotyping is greatest during family hour.

Minorities and women are still underrepresented among network news correspondents, and the percentage of correspondents who are minority females decreased. In 15 network news programs, no minority newsmakers appeared as experts; females appeared as experts only on women's issues.

Viewers Call Public TV Difficult

A qualitative study conducted for the Corporation for Public Broadcasting has explored attitudes and habits of viewers in relation to television. Interviewers questioned groups of viewers in Philadelphia, Minneapolis, Denver, and Houston.

Those interviewed credited public television with offering cultural programs, stimulating thought, conveying information, broadening horizons, being uncensored, and having good children's programs.

Viewers also said one had to prepare more for watching public television and to make more time for it. Negative opinions were that public television lacks humor, excitement, and stars; is too demanding and not relaxing; and is technically amateurish.

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Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Teaching Materials and Critical Thinking

I found "Who Produced These Teaching Materials?" (November-December) somewhat offensive. There is no doubt that industry has some motive for entering the educational media arena. On the other hand, there should be no doubt that a professional teacher is at least striving for the skills of critical thinking for him/herself. Further, these very skills are the ones students of today must be taught if they are to survive tomorrow.

In reviewing or using the material industry has to offer, we still operate in a free society, as far as I know, and we can use the materials with whatever integrity and intelligence we have as professionals.

—Elizabeth T. Koch, *learning disability teacher consultant/resource teacher, Fairview School, Middletown Township, New Jersey.*

Please let me read the books before you burn them!

If those who sponsor the banning of business-supported materials have their way, they will have set themselves up as the final arbiters of what the student and the teacher may or may not read. Such sponsors are also saying in effect, "You, the teacher, are not capable of discerning the biases or the 'covert marketing of ideological and cultural suppositions' in educational materials and discarding or abridging them at your own free will."

What is more, you, the teacher, in using corporate-developed materials may unwittingly be promoting the market economy—the avowed economic system of the United States—as opposed to a rigidly regulated, controlled system!

Indeed, in developing educational and consumer aids, is not industry doing the bidding of those who sought—no, demanded—corporate "socially responsible" activities for consumers and education? Prior to the era of the "socially responsive" corporation, business was delighted to just produce goods and services and earn a profit. Today, considerably more is demanded of business, and one of those demands is active participation in the community. Yet business is damned whether it does or does not!

The *sovereign* teacher, like the *sovereign* consumer, has the political freedom to reject or accept in whole or in part the business-supported material. Let's hope that the teacher will retain this precious, fragile freedom in the face of an ever-growing government intrusion into education at all levels and in the face of self-styled public-interest "educational specialists" pressuring for power to decide what the teacher can or cannot use in the classroom.

—Nancy Z. Spillman, *director, Center for Economic Education, and associate professor of economics, Los Angeles Trade-Technical College.*

Corporal Punishment: What Kids Say

At one time I felt that corporal punishment ("A Further Look at Corporal Punishment," November-December) was an institutional form of violence and that such violence would be imitated by the punished child. However, I have changed my opinion, largely because of attitudes of students in my school.

Given a choice between an hour in detention hall and a "lick," about 75 percent will take the lick, although it is administered with considerable force. They say they feel it is a just consequence of their action and gets the situation over with quickly. After I had heard the crash of the board once or twice, I would opt for detention hall, but the students feel otherwise.

—Sheila A. Saul, *behavior disability resource teacher, Muscogee County Schools, Columbus, Georgia.*

Planning Career Services for the Handicapped

Technical Education Research Center is conducting a project entitled "Collaborative Planning of Career Education Services for Disabled Youth," sponsored by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped of the U.S. Office of Education. At three sites handicapped service organizations, business and industrial firms, public secondary schools, and government agencies will collaborate to improve existing career planning services and develop new ones. We would like anyone who knows of similar projects to send us a brief description, including the name of a contact person.

A *Collaborative Planning Handbook* describing the results at the three sites and other collaborative programs will be available in July 1980. To obtain a free copy, write us at 44 Brattle St., Cambridge, MA 02138.

—Jean Workman, *Collaborative Planning Project, Technical Education Research Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.*

Year of the Child

Your cover for the February-March issue is extremely significant, for the representative pictures of the world's children show what teaching is fundamentally about. The cover upholds all the truisms about teaching and being a teacher. And the best teacher mirrors qualities engraved by Nature on the lovely faces of these kids.

Chinese philosophy speaks of it as YING and YANG, and Western philosophy has all sorts of names for it, but all the names express one universal fact: men are not brothers, men are one. All humanity is one.

—Paul Burns, *fifth grade teacher, Page Manor Elementary School, Dayton, Ohio.*

A Matter of Vocabulary and Communication

Go "back" to the classroom? Move "down" from third grade to first? Get "out" of the classroom and "move up" in the world?

I moved from third grade to first in order to understand curriculum and children's growth better. The first grade teachers helped me patiently, and I would never again tolerate the statement "the teachers 'below' us are not teaching." Those teachers are laying a foundation, and they are not responsible for the differences in children's growth rates.

When I became a junior high school counselor, I was congratulated on "getting out" of the classroom (escaping) and asked whether I meant to "go back" (regress). Now, after I have moved into administration, my old colleagues have become guarded; in their minds my concerns are different.

I am not different, and if I stay in administration, it will be to promote the idea that teachers are the backbone of education. The only way we can work together to educate our nation's young people is to have an understanding and respect for all levels of education. We are here to help one another—above all, we are here for children.

—Charlotte McElroy, *assistant principal, Cabrillo Junior High School, Ventura, California.*

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 20

Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

When speaking to students about noninstructional matters, do teachers show the same verbal behaviors, regardless of differences in their teaching styles or in student characteristics?

Yes, according to this study of teacher behavior in four fourth-grade classrooms in two schools. The classrooms were selected on the basis of being "dissimilar"—the students differed in ethnicity and socioeconomic status and the teaching styles ranged from the very open to the very rigid. The author observed each classroom for two consecutive months.

Despite the differences among classrooms, she found that six teacher verbal behaviors occurred with approximately the same frequency in each. Together these behaviors made up about three-fifths of the noninstructional talking the teachers engaged in. The six behaviors, and the proportion of noninstructional talking time represented by each are—

Spelling out teacher rules and expectations	16%
Maintaining a task orientation	11
Emphasizing and clarifying the class time schedule	10
Reprimanding students	9
Directing students to keep quiet	8
Directing students to "get moving"	6

In the author's view, these common elements constitute a core of management behaviors that is common to all teachers and essential to establishing the minimal conditions under which work can take place in the classroom. Despite differences in classroom organization and teacher style, students in every classroom are thus exposed to and expected to internalize what some have called a "hidden" curriculum that asks them to do what the teacher says, live up to teacher expectations for proper behavior, keep busy, keep quiet and not move too much, and stick to the schedule.

The author concludes that the degree of change that is possible in public schools is limited by institutional needs for order, conformity, time schedules, and work.

See Margaret D. LeCompte, "Establishing a Workplace: Teacher Control in the Classroom." *Education and Urban Society* 11: 87-106; November 1978.

Do emotionally disturbed children behave differently in special and regular classes?

This small study points out the need for carefully considering the effects of environment when seeking to transfer emotionally disturbed children into regular classes. Its authors observed four such preschoolers when they were in special classes and later when they were in regular classes. The children engaged in a higher frequency of disruptive behavior in the regular classroom. In the special classes, teachers were more likely to respond to disruptive behavior by interpreting and explaining it, while in the regular class they were more likely to ignore it.

The relatively higher student-teacher ratio in the regular class probably contributed to the greater incidence of misbehavior in that class, suggest the authors. Such variation in student-teacher ratios is, however, a fact of life that must be dealt with if efforts to place handicapped children in regular classes are to be successful.

See Donald L. Pastor and Susan M. Swap, "An Ecological Study of Emotionally Disturbed Preschoolers in Special and Regular Classes." *Exceptional Children* 45: 213-16; November 1978.

Do teachers' questions stimulate students' thought?

The author reminds us that no sound research evidence exists to support the assumption that teachers' questions (including "high-level" questions) cause students to respond thoughtfully or on a high level. In fact, some research, practice, and theory imply that questions may actually inhibit students from thinking and responding.

The studies cited, says the author, have found that responses to questions are usually brief and that they become briefer as further questions are asked. In practice, he says, (for example, in cross examinations and opinion polling) questions are often used to prevent thinking and elaboration of responses. In fields whose purpose is to encourage expression (personnel interviewing or psychotherapy, for example), practitioners avoid the use of questions to keep from inhibiting responses and cutting off conversation.

The author concludes that he cannot really tell whether teacher questions stimulate student thought or depress it. His contention is that researchers and educators should not assume that the former outcome will occur and act on that assumption, since little or no evidence supports it. The opposite assumption is equally probable and should not be ignored.

See J. T. Dillon, "Using Questions To Depress Student Thought." *School Review* 87: 50-63; November 1978.

Is inappropriate student behavior a major concern of school people?

Teachers and administrators may not be as concerned with student misbehavior as they are with the behavior of other adults in dealing with it, according to this study of a large suburban high school. Year-long observations at the school revealed that school staff devote much of their day-to-day activity and thinking to issues related to discipline but that more of their concern has to do with how other adults handle discipline than it does with actual student misconduct.

The author defined six categories of "adult" discipline problems:

- inconsistent rule enforcement
- noncompliance with discipline policies
- insensitivity to students
- lack of disciplinary data
- lack of classroom management skills
- inadequate administration of disciplinary policies.

The author feels that his study emphasizes the need for new thinking about discipline procedures in schools.

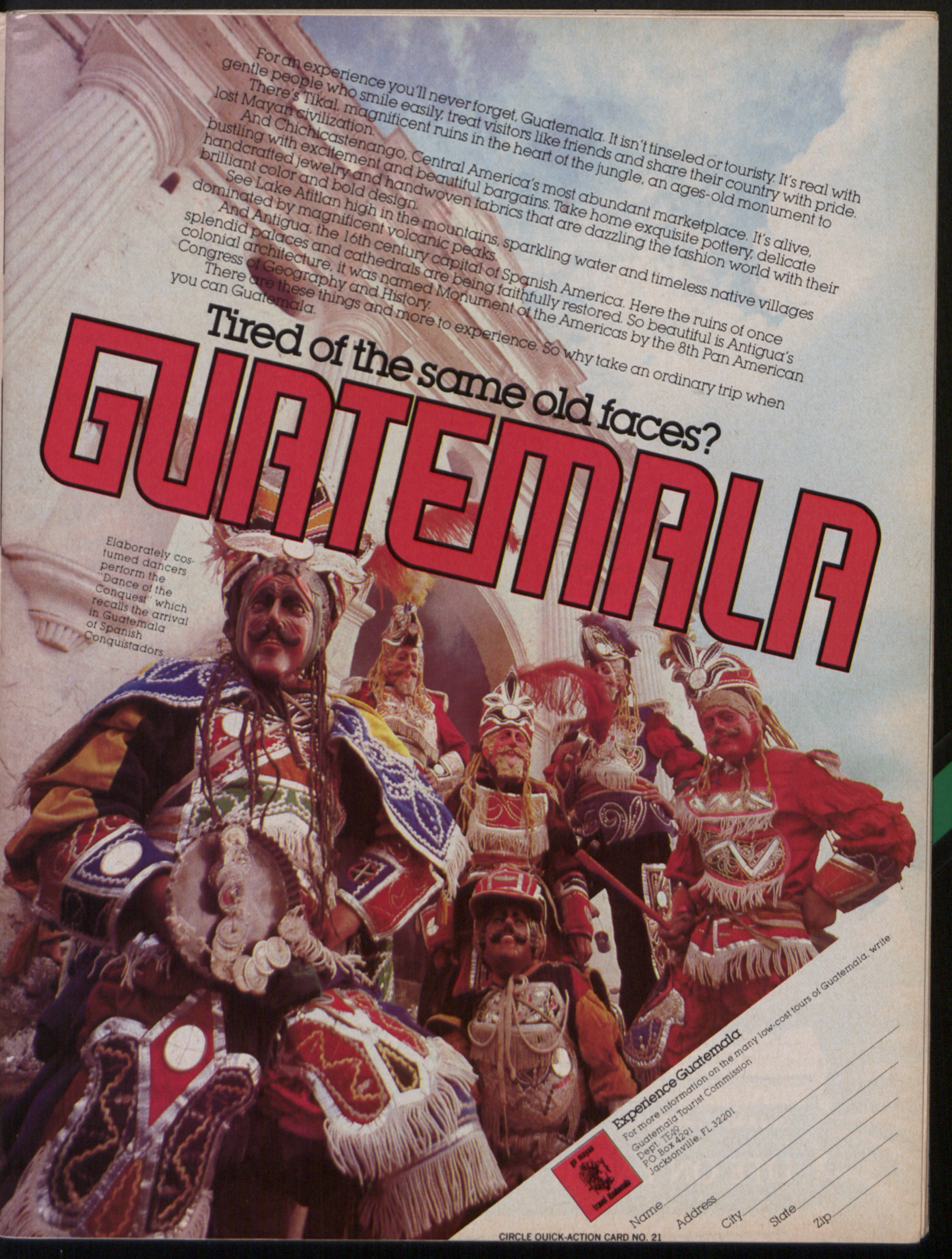
See Daniel Linden Duke, "Adults Can Be Discipline Problems Too!" *Psychology in the Schools* 15: 522-28; October 1978.

Do students from open school environments show greater self-esteem than students from traditional environments do?

No, according to this study of 350 seventh graders. They were divided into two groups according to whether they had attended an open or a traditional school in the sixth grade. The authors found no significant difference in self-esteem between the two groups of students.

The study used the Walberg-Thomas Scales to define open and traditional classrooms and the Coopersmith Self-

(continued on page 16)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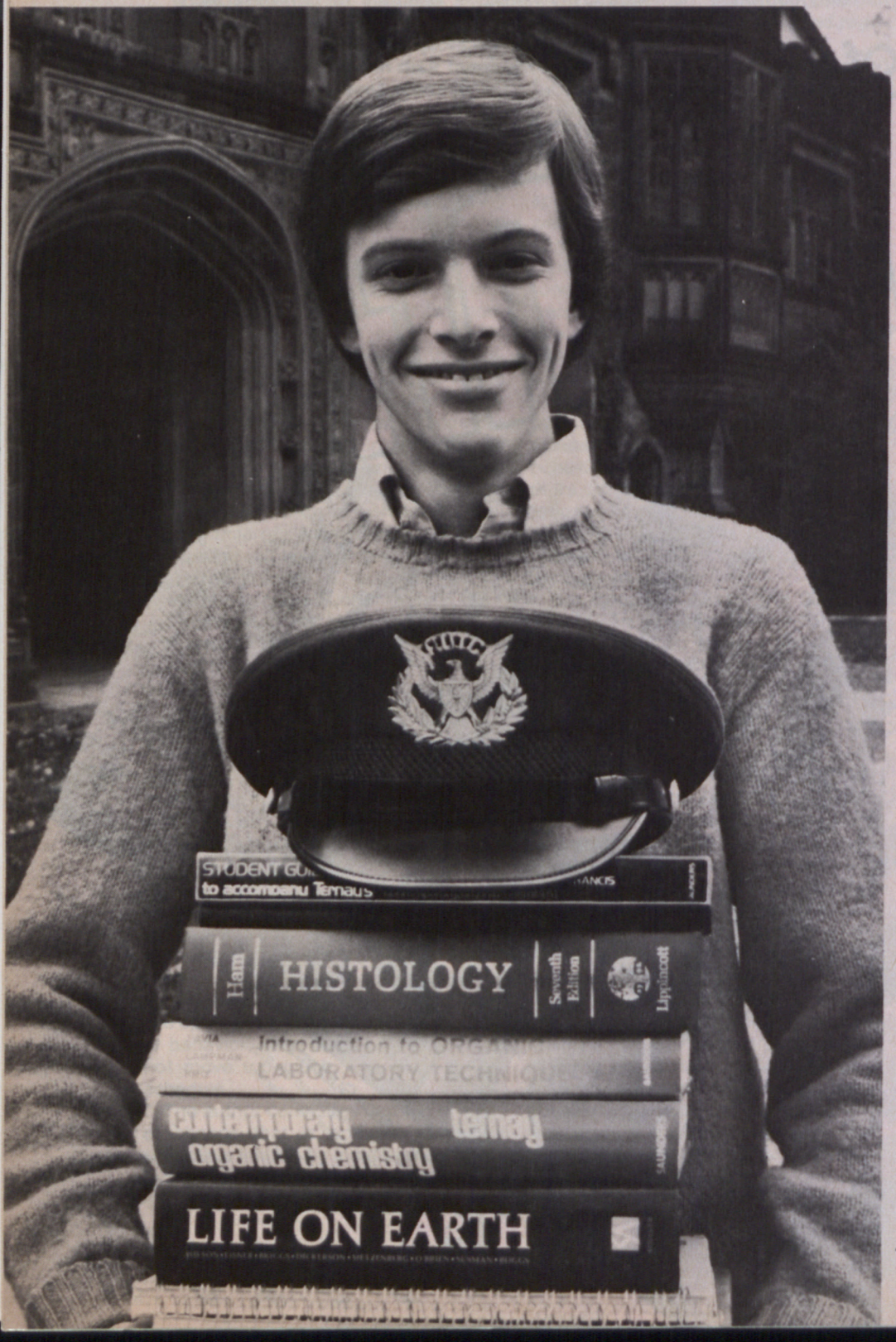

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 31

VITAMIN UNDERACHIEVERS.

YOU SEE THEM EVERY DAY.

THE OVERWEIGHT STUDENT
may have poor eating patterns that include high-calorie, low-nutrient foods

THE DIETER
may not be eating a well-balanced diet, which can result in inadequate nutrient and vitamin intake

THE STUDENT ATHLETE
who engages in strenuous physical activity requires extra calories and, in order to use them to the best advantage, must maintain adequate vitamin levels

THE ADOLESCENT
requires the proper amounts of nutrients to support the growth spurt, biological changes and increased physical activity

YOU CAN HELP ENSURE THEIR PROPER VITAMIN LEVELS

Eating habits can be a special problem for adolescents—an age group critically "at risk" nutritionally. Teenagers need the right amounts of nutrients to support their growth spurt, biological changes and increased physical activity. Proper amounts of vitamins and minerals are an important health consideration, since they are required to maintain the body's life support systems. Because vitamins are necessary elements in the process of converting food to energy and in building body tissues, lowered vitamin and mineral levels during these years could limit adolescents in achieving their full biological development.

Sometimes an adolescent's heightened sensitivity regarding self-image and peer pressure can contribute to a nutrition and vitamin imbalance. For example, the teenage girl concerned about keeping a slender figure who changes from one fad diet to another and misses out on some of the four basic food groups. Or the overweight adolescent who may be consuming foods that are high in calories but low in nutrient density, including vitamins.

Peer pressure may also lead an adolescent to engage in other habits that can interfere with proper nutrition and vitamin intake. Teenagers are aware of many of the health hazards of heavy smoking and drinking, but may be unaware of possible adverse effects on their nutritional well-being. Smoking more than 20 cigarettes a day may lower blood plasma levels of vitamin C up to 30% or more, and heavy drinking interferes with the utilization of vitamins B_1, B_6 and folic acid. Of course, these habits should be strongly discouraged.

You can help your students understand the importance of proper nutrient intake during this critical time of their lives. You can help them understand that people with marginal micronutrient deficiencies may not, among other things, perform at peak levels. Once this is understood, the adolescent can take steps to ensure adequate nutrient intake through proper food selection. Where appropriate, fortified foods are recommended and multivitamin supplements are available for insurance. When you think about it, the nutrition and vitamin awareness of your students makes very good sense.

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Research Clues

(continued)

Esteem Inventory to measure self-esteem.

The authors also found no significant differences in self-esteem when they compared students by IQ, socioeconomic status, and sibling position. They did find that the girls in the sample were significantly higher in self-esteem than the boys. They conclude that we should be skeptical about claims that the open classroom fosters motivation and "happiness."

See Wendi H. Klass and Stephen E. Hodge, "Self-Esteem in Open and Traditional Classrooms." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 70: 701-705; October 1978.

What changes would students most like to see in their schools?

Elementary school students would make changes mainly in the facilities; junior high students, in human relations; and senior high students, in curriculum and the organizational environment. This is the conclusion of one school district that asked each of its 2,700 students to name the one change they would make if they were the "boss" of their school.

The elementary students showed the most concern about such changes as keeping buses cleaner and employing nicer people in the cafeteria. Junior high students, however, had little to say about facilities—their concern was to change human relations by allowing students more voice in administration and by setting up fewer and more reasonable rules. Senior high students felt that they would make changes in such areas as scheduling, teacher evaluation, and textbook review.

The results reflect what is important to each of these age groups. They provide teachers and administrators with an indication of possible problem areas in their classrooms and schools.

See Raymond G. Taylor, Jr. "If I Were Boss . . ." *Education* 99: 8-9; Fall 1978.

Is minimal competency testing a worthwhile concept to implement?

Probably not, according to this review and discussion. The authors see three unresolved problems: Education policymakers can't adequately define what competencies are, they can't agree on specifications of minimal competencies; and they can't effectively determine appropriate measures of minimal competencies.

Problems abound in defining competency, say the authors. For one, acquiring a skill is only a narrow part of what competency in using that skill really is. For another, the traditional school skills that are measured by test scores have not shown any real relationship to success in later occupational life.

The authors also question the ability of educators to set minimum scores on competency tests in any scientific way. Currently, minimum scores are set by subjective judgments coupled with judgments about what failure rate is politically tolerable.

Finally, the authors point out, serious problems exist with minimum competency tests themselves. When they are targeted at essential life skills (figuring income tax, using a telephone directory, for example), they do not directly measure what schools teach. On the other hand, many competency tests are simply multiple-choice tests that do not really measure life skills at all (just as, for example, the written portion of a driving test does not measure driving skills).

The authors conclude that "the problems of implementing minimum-competency-testing programs appear at present to be far larger than the benefits derived from them." Some may find this conclusion controversial. Still the article must be considered valuable for its warning against "questionable testing of ill-defined competencies based on arbitrarily defined minimums."

See Walt Haney and George Madaus. "Making Sense of the Competency Testing Movement." *Harvard Educational Review* 48: 462-84; November 1978.

"Well, no wonder you're finding it so difficult to learn French. This is a Spanish class."

The Teacher and the Law

Coaches' Pay

The current controversy over the disparity in salary between those who coach female teams and those who coach male teams provides a good example of how the parties to a dispute can elude the real question by sparring over the language of a law. The real question in this situation is, Is it just to pay those who coach girls' teams less than their counterparts who coach boys' teams?

Some school districts may respond to this question by saying that the disparity in pay constitutes not discrimination, but a realistic recognition of the varying demands made on coaches by different team sports. When pressed, however, the school district may have difficulty defining the extra work responsibility or pressure which mandates the higher pay.

Administrators may be able to point out that girls' teams have shorter practice times and play fewer games, that the teams travel less and the coaches are under less pressure. These may be legitimate reasons for paying the girls' coaches less than their counterparts, but they also constitute illegal discrimination against female students.

For the most part, courts have not responded to the question of the justice of these unequal salary scales. Rather, they have wrangled over the legal technicalities of just which laws cover which statutorily defined class. While this may make interesting reading for the many lawyers around the country, it provides little solace to the girls' basketball coach who is earning less than the boys' coach.

The girls' coach may yet have reason for optimism, however. An increasing number of lawsuits are being filed on this issue, and through the case law created by the decisions in these suits, legal guidelines should evolve. Also, federal agencies have begun both to remedy such salary differences by enforcing antidiscrimination laws and by clarifying formally the application of such laws to coaching.

Principally three federal antidiscrimination laws have been employed against differences in pay between the coaches of male and of female teams: Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments, and the Equal Pay Act of 1963.

Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, sex, or national origin. Private suits brought under Title VII have been extremely effective in fighting sex discrimination in a number of employment areas.

Unfortunately, at least up to the present, Title VII has not been a very efficacious remedy for discrimination among coaches.

In two separate decisions, the Federal District Court for the Western District of Pennsylvania has refused to apply Title VII to coaching. In both cases, the court reasoned that the identifiably sex-segregated class was the students, not the coach-employees, since both men and women coach female teams.

These two decisions should not be the final word on Title VII in this situation. The argument above might be overcome by citation of a number of federal court decisions that have held that an employment practice which bears significant correlation to one sex or race violates Title VII. The clear predominance of females among girls' coaches justifies such a correlation.

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments states that no "education program or activity receiving federal assistance" may discriminate against anyone on the basis of sex.

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) Title IX regulations prohibit discrepancies in pay between persons of different sexes for "equal work on jobs the performance of which requires equal skill, effort, and responsibility, and which are performed under similar working conditions." In addition, the Title IX regulations on athletic programs require that students have equal opportunity "to receive coaching" and to be assigned "coaches and tutors."

It would appear from the above language that Title IX would be appropriate for handling coaching salary disputes. Once Title IX enters the courtroom, however, it runs into its own stumbling blocks. First courts have been reluctant to apply Title IX to employees. Thus, while courts might be receptive to complaints filed by students regarding the coaching they are receiving, they would be less likely to accept suits brought by the coaches themselves.

An even more fundamental problem is the holding of a number of courts that while Title IX provides individuals and groups administrative remedies, it does not grant them the right to file private lawsuits over an alleged Title IX violation. A pending Supreme Court decision should soon resolve this question.

Despite Title IX's failure to produce results in the courts, some coaches of female teams, filing Title IX complaints with HEW, have succeeded in forcing their school districts to equalize coaching salary scales. The complainants' success in using this route, however, may be determined more by the character of the HEW office in their region than by the quality of their complaints.

Complaints filed by the Connecticut Education Association with the HEW Regional Office in Boston led to HEW's ordering a number of Connecticut school districts to raise the salaries of girls' coaches to the level of the boys' coaches. In addition, the Office ordered the districts to upgrade their entire girls' athletic programs, including equipment, scheduling of practice, and assignment of coaches.

The Boston Regional Office ordered remedies in a number of Massachusetts school districts after finding similar discrimination in the compensation of coaches.

On the other hand, when the New Jersey Education Association filed analogous Title IX complaints against school districts in that state, the HEW Regional Office in New York informed the Association that coaching disparities did not constitute a Title IX violation.

Apparently the New Jersey coaches will find relief only if they move to New England. Such a drastic measure may not be necessary, however, once HEW completes national guidelines interpreting Title IX's application to coaching. These guidelines may have far-reaching effects, since the Department has already indicated it will consider coaching compensation from the viewpoint of the coaches as well as of those being coached.

In a letter to a school in California, the Department has advised that although the expenditure of more time on boys' practice might justify payment of higher salaries to boys' coaches, the differences in practice time would themselves violate Title IX by denying female students equitable treatment.

Many supposed justifications for

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coaching salary differences may collapse in the face of this dual coach-student approach.

After clarifying the law, the Department should strengthen its enforcement effort also, since even those in Connecticut who succeeded in getting action report that HEW's response came only after a long period of constant pressure from complainants.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibits discrimination between men and women in pay "for equal work on jobs the performance of which requires equal skill, effort, and responsibility, and which are performed under similar working conditions."

This law has probably been the most potent ground for arguments against discrepancies in coaching salary. It even has the support of a court decision.

In *Brennan v. Woodbridge School District,* the Federal District Court for the District of Delaware ruled that a school district had violated the Equal Pay Act by paying the coach of the girls' softball team less than the coach of the boys' baseball team. In arriving at its decision, the court considered, among other factors, the nature of the sports involved, the number of players supervised in each sport, the lengths of practice time, and the amount of team travel required.

The administrator of the Equal Pay Act is the Department of Labor (DOL). This agency appears to be much more active in policing discrepancies in coaching salaries than is HEW. As of 1977, DOL was involved in coaching salary disputes in six regions around the country. By that year, DOL had ordered back pay and salary equalization in 14 school districts and filed suit against seven other school districts.

DOL is now preparing an Equal Pay Act policy for school athletic coaching. An unpublished rough draft of the policy advises that coaches generally perform duties "which share a substantial similarity" regardless of the sport in question. The draft also suggests that although different sports may require coaches to undertake different responsibilities, in many cases, when all factors are considered, these demands will balance one another out.

All states have antidiscrimination laws, some paralleling federal laws, and challenges to unequal compensation of coaches may be brought in state courts.

The Washington Education Association has filed a class action suit in state court on behalf of all its local affiliates, all coaches of female teams in the state, and all parents of female students against the 302 school districts in the state and the Washington Interscholastic Activities Association.

The suit charges that the lower compensation of coaches of female teams violates the Washington Equal Rights Amendment, the Washington Educational Equity Act (the state's equivalent of Title IX), and the Washington Law Against Discrimination (the state's equivalent of Title VII). Along with the added force of an equal rights amendment, this suit has the advantage of a state Title-IX-type statute that specifies that not only the government, but private individuals and groups, can sue for enforcement of its provisions.

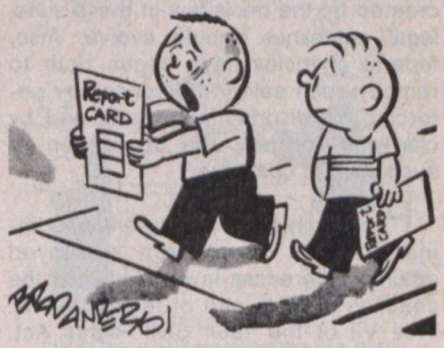
In New York State, female team volleyball coach Hazel Varner was awarded $7,800 in back pay and an immediate raise in pay by a jury which found the University of Rochester discriminating on the basis of sex.

Varner filed suit under the New York Human Rights Law, which is similar to the federal statue Title VII. The jury found that the university had been underpaying Varner on the basis of her sex since 1973. Varner demonstrated that a pattern of paying female coaches less than male coaches existed at the university.

School districts may produce a number of "practical justifications" for a discrepancy between the compensation of coaches of boys' and of girls' teams. Closely examined, these "justifications" will reveal themselves either to have no basis in fact or to reflect general sex discrimination in school sports.

The ending of inequities in coaches' compensation will thus assist in the disclosure and consequent elimination of sex discrimination in all facets of school athletic programs.

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*



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The Discipline Dilemma

In thousands of classrooms across the country, a climate of interest, cooperation, and purposeful activity exists. Students grow in self-esteem and self-direction as they show the teacher and one another mutual respect and confidence. In other classrooms, however, despite the teacher's best efforts, disruptions and misbehavior make learning almost impossible. These are the classrooms that have attracted the attention of national media. They are of deep concern to the teaching profession as well.

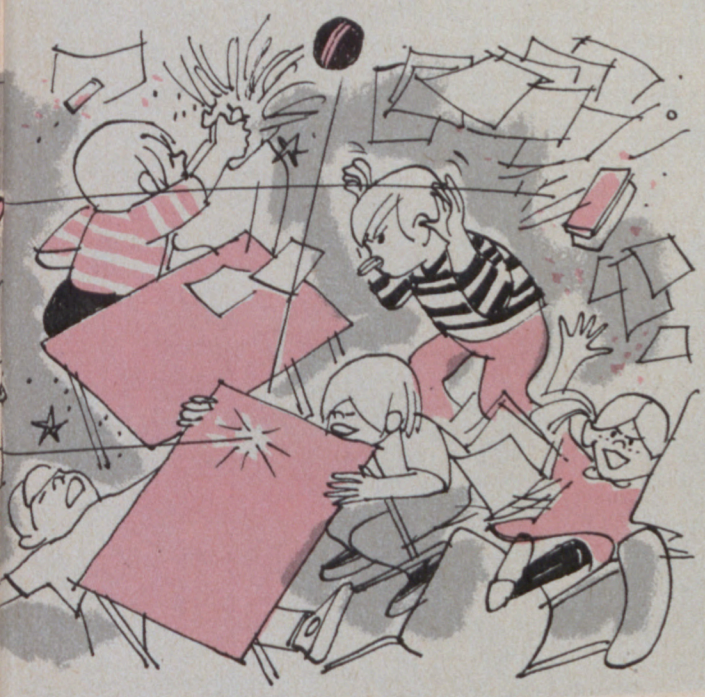
Polls of parents and educators alike list discipline among the top issues confronting the schools, where, as the headlines proclaim, there is an increase in drug abuse, stealing, and destructiveness. Teachers worry about the effect disruptive behavior has on learning. There is consensus that something must be done, but little agreement about what to do and how to do it.

In the United States, cooperation between school and home has always been the basis for appropriate behavior by children and youth. Today, however, some charge that parents have abdicated their responsibilities for instilling values and building character. They say parents lay the entire burden of achieving these ends at the schoolhouse door. Others place all the blame for the misbehavior of youth on the school. In fact, however, these charges and countercharges confuse both teachers and parents.

Conflicting signals from adherents of opposing philosophies further inhibit their efforts at cooperation. At one extreme, the back-to-basics proponents consider the ruler the fourth R in the curriculum. They emphasize the importance of authority, order, standards, and realistic punishment in developing character and in learning. They demand structured classrooms where students learn to toe the line. Strict methods are required, they claim, in order to remedy the chronic misbehavior of young people brought up by the excessively permissive "Spock" generation of parents. They are likely to support the decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in *Ingraham v. Wright,* permitting corporal punishment of children in school.

At the other end of the continuum, the adherents of a liberal, open philosophy advocate humanistic methods of classroom management. They decry corporal punishment as psychologically harmful. They hold that punishment in general produces only temporary results because it is based simply on fear of consequences. They are convinced that traditional discipline policies often violate the rights of students and damage their sense of dignity and competence. So they are likely to approve the Supreme Court's decision in *Goss v. Lopez*, entitling children to due process before suspension from school.

Obviously, to develop a school discipline policy that would please both camps is impossible. Perhaps the only real public consensus on school discipline is that a climate conducive to learning must exist in the classroom and that the responsibility for developing and maintaining such a climate falls squarely on the



shoulders of the classroom teacher who is in charge.

The fact is, however, that teachers' efforts to create such a climate are frequently blocked by factors they are powerless to influence, such as irrelevant curriculum, lack of administrative support, and—particularly—excessive class size. When teachers are expected to manage classes of 30 or 40 or more students with a broad range of social, emotional, and learning problems, they often find themselves more involved in discipline than in teaching.

Furthermore, schools are seldom organized so that teachers can help one another. Even the most competent and experienced teachers feel they need help in solving the new kinds of behavior problems in schools today. But opportunities for in-service education are often meaningless or nonexistent.

Fortunately, through efforts of the united profession, teachers are beginning to get involved in the decision-making councils of their school districts, formulating and publicizing positions on discipline-related issues and bargaining for improved discipline policies and for practical in-service education.

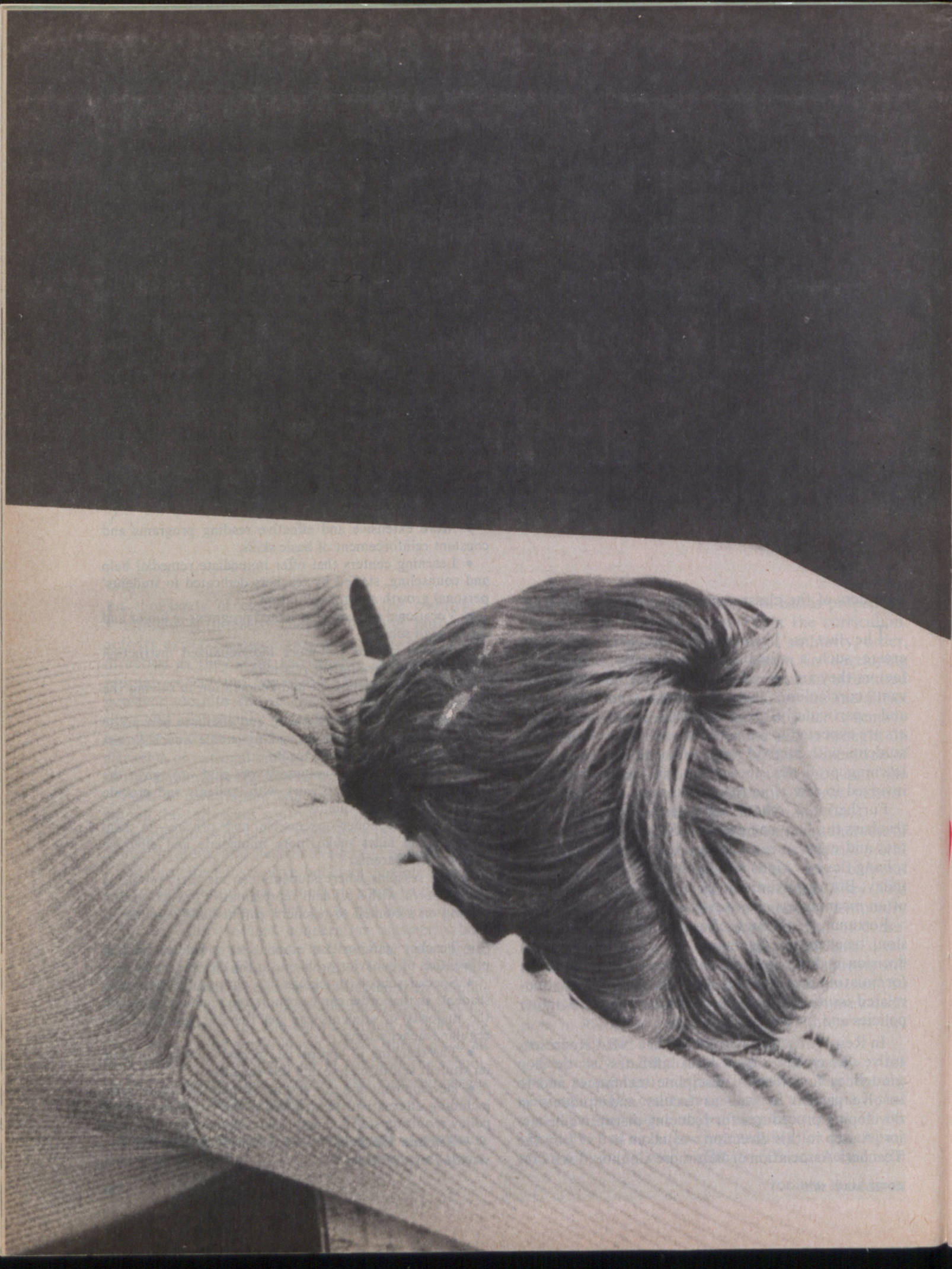
In Resolution 78-28 [page 28], the NEA Representative Assembly urges local affiliates to develop guidelines for effective discipline techniques and to involve parents as well as faculty and students in developing procedures for reducing disruptive behavior. A step in this direction was taken in 1977 by the Teachers Association of Baltimore County (TABCO) in Maryland. TABCO established a task force of 20 lay and professional persons to study the types and causes of disruptive behavior in the schools. Their report has served as a discussion guide and as the basis for part of the TABCO contract proposal. (The report is available from task force chairman John Marck at TABCO, 305 E. Joppa Rd., Baltimore, MD 21204.)

The task force's recommendations are uniquely valuable in the degree of specificity and practicality they display, characteristics that could come only from the involvement of parents and practicing teachers. Teachers know, for example, that when communication with parents is needed, a convenient telephone station can make all the difference to a harried teacher and save the day for a misbehaving child.

Among other items, the task force recommends that the school secure the following:

- Curriculum geared to the interest of students, including special programs and individualized instruction where necessary.
- More extensive and effective reading programs and constant reinforcement of basic skills.
- Learning centers that offer immediate remedial help and counseling, staffed by teachers dedicated to students' personal growth and rehabilitation.
- Vocational and career-oriented programs in junior and senior high schools.
- Smaller classes for more individualized instruction and better teacher-student relations.
- Parental awareness of and cooperation in solving the discipline problem.
- More aides, social workers, and resource persons to provide specialized services and to handle nonclassroom duties so that teachers can teach.
- Counselor aides—voluntary or paid—to give the counselors more time to work with students and provide counseling of better quality.
- More telephones—accessible and private—to help teachers and aides make more immediate and effective contact with parents.
- Rap sessions where students can air their problems among peers, with a student representative of each session serving on a council of teachers, parents, and administrators.
- Teacher training that emphasizes the detection and prevention of behavior problems at the elementary level.
- Special schools or classes for chronically disruptive students so that order can be restored to regular classes and the majority of students can get the full benefit of the regular teacher's time.
- The teaching of appropriate behavior, with emphasis on student self-discipline and self-reliance.
- Development of a fair and firm school discipline code, including alternatives to suspension and expulsion, and a policy requiring staff to apply the code consistently.

—Thelma Horacek, *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*



The Teacher Who Disciplines LEAST...

There was a time when teachers were told that a "good lesson plan" was the key to effective classroom management. Now, when even experienced teachers watch their classes disintegrate in the face of child-induced chaos, they suspect that something more than a "good lesson plan" is needed. The LEAST approach to discipline helps add a component that the lesson plan lacks: guidance in deciding what level of involvement will produce the best result. Since LEAST is an acronym, as well as a specific plan and philosophy, we'll go through it, letter by letter.

L—*Leave it alone.* This is always your first option. No matter how dedicated you are to good classroom management, you can't prevent all disruptive behavior. Kids will talk, swear, fight, push, carry weapons, in spite of rules. The question is, What do you do about it? If you choose to try to stop all disruptive behavior, your effort is doomed to failure.

A wise and practiced teacher knows when to get involved and, more important, when to leave it alone. Teachers who can't use this option may find themselves not only committed to failure, but committed to frustration, maybe committed to leaving teaching, or simply committed (to you know where).

An example: Tom stomps into class late, drops into his seat with a crash, and announces in a loud voice, "I'm late!" This kind of behavior frequently gets a response from a teacher—but should it?

Let's examine the facts. Tom can neither undo his lateness, nor, on the other hand, be late a second time for this class. He is in his seat, which is where he ought to be. He has made a true statement that does not merit debate. So the teacher wouldn't accomplish anything positive by interrupting the class to "correct" the deviant behavior.

In addition, by getting involved the teacher might do several nonproductive things:

- Magnify the problem by compounding the number of people involved.
- Make the behavior important by calling it to the attention of the whole class.
- Devote personal attention to the student who deserves it the least, i.e., reward the disruptive behavior.
- Ignore, if only momentarily, the class members who are behaving correctly.

In this illustration, the teacher would clearly be better off to leave it alone—especially since once involved, you are involved; there's no going back.

Can you recall a time when you would have been better off leaving it alone?

E—End the action. That's what you want to do! Of course there are times when you are ill-advised to leave a situation alone. On these occasions it is necessary to end the action, and to do so without disrupting learning or rewarding the malefactor. At the same time, he or she should be aware of both the infraction and your concern.

◀ Why does John act this way in your class?

The task here is to keep cool, don't overreact, and realize when your purpose has been achieved. The danger to avoid is making a bad situation worse.

Consider Woody, who is carving obscene messages on his desk. Now, seeing him do it does not explain *why* he is doing it. He may be nervous, about to explode emotionally; he may be about to stick his knife into a neighbor; he may be bored; or he may not even realize what he is doing. In any case, his motives are not your immediate concern. What matters is stopping him from reducing the furniture to splinters.

Ending the action brings into play your most powerful weapon: your eye. Woody is not likely to keep on carving when fixed with your piercing gaze. It may be necessary to walk toward him before catching his eye, or even to call his name. But in the end, he will stop carving and you will have ended the action. You've done what needed to be done for now.

Of course, Woody still has the knife, and that is a potential problem. At this point, however, any action beyond stopping the carving could well be the wrong action.

Can you recall a time when you made a situation worse *after* you had stopped the disruptive action?

A—Attend more fully. To go beyond ending disruption for the moment, you need to attack a problem at its root. You can decide how only when you know what's really going on.

Consider these situations—

- Margaret, a quiet girl who doesn't do much, comes to class one day with no books, no paper, no pencil; she slumps in her seat and makes no response at all to what is going on. When you suggest, tactfully, that she pay attention, she replies by telling you to perform an impossible sexual act. *Why* is Margaret making this suggestion to you?
- Robert comes into class carrying an admit slip. On his way to his seat he accidentally (?) bumps into Fred. Instead of apologizing, he tells Fred to "keep the hell out of my way!" *Who* is really upsetting Robert?
- Cindy is asleep; it's the last period of the day; and it has happened before. The last time, you had everyone leave quietly. When Cindy woke up, school was out and her bus was gone. She was both embarrassed and angry. *How* is Cindy's sleeping related to you or your class—or is it?
- Freddie comes to school every morning looking very nice. He is clean, carries his lunch, does good work, and seems normal in every way. After lunch, his clothes are a mess and he smells bad (stinks!). *Where* does Freddie go at lunchtime?
- Paul comes to class in a wheelchair, then leaves the chair and moves around the room using a cane, or more often the furniture, for support. In the process he disturbs other students by knocking their stuff around and demanding special help. *When* does Paul really need the help? *What* are Paul's motives in demanding attention?

In each of these vignettes, it is clear that before you can do much to solve the problem you need to know more background.

This is the time to *attend more fully,* to ask the Who, What, Where, When, Why, and How questions. And remember, these questions may give you the facts, but equally important is the way the student feels about the situation. This is when you use all your training, experience, and tact.

Examine Margaret's case. Her suggestion to you did not supply many facts, but it did give you a strong hint that the problem may be one of emotion. It is up to you to initiate a meaningful, truthful dialog before deciding what action, if any, to take.

Simply saying, "You seem upset. We'll talk later" may be the best thing to do. Later (a magic word for teachers), after the emotion has been dealt with, you can go into the facts. Then choose your course of action.

Can you recall a time when you should have attended more fully *before* giving directions?

S—Spell out directions—and make them clear. That's the next step, when you decide not to ignore a disruptive action, can't end it with a glance, and have done your research on the situation.

Telling kids what to do comes easy for teachers. We do it all the time. The trick is having the kids follow the directions. This is the crucial point of success or failure in classroom management. When students follow the teacher's directions, the teacher is in control. When students do not follow these directions, the teacher is not in control.

A truth often overlooked by teachers is that it is the student who decides whether to follow a direction. We should know this; we don't have to like it, but we must deal with it.

New directions, if students are to follow them, must have two important characteristics.

- The direction must be clear and within the student's capabilities. Asking a student to do the impossible invites defiance rather than compliance.
- The consequences of following or failing to follow the direction must be plain to the student. The knowledge of consequences is the basis of the student's decision whether to follow the direction.

Consider the case of Foster. He fights in your class, and you consider this disruptive. He always involves another student in the activity, obviously. He seems to be serious about what he is doing.

Some possible results are—a student gets hurt; you get hurt; lack of class control gives you a bad evaluation; an injury to a student brings a lawsuit from a

parent. You've got to give Foster some new direction, and it must be one he will follow.

External Facts

- Who? Foster fights boys of his own size or smaller and of any race.
- What? This seems to be a single-issue problem. Fight is what Foster does.
- Where? On campus, off campus, in classes, in restrooms, in stores, on streets, at home—in short, everywhere.
- When? Seven days a week during any waking hour.
- Why? He loves it. It is something he does well according to him and his victims alike.
- How? With arms, fists, occasionally legs and head, but not with weapons. (This knowledge may not help you set new directions, but in the process of getting it you at least let Foster know you are interested.)

Emotional Components

- As we've noted, Foster loves to fight.
- His schoolmates admire his skill in fighting.
- His fighting makes adults pay attention to him.

Once you've gotten all this information by attending more fully, you are ready to give Foster the new direction. "Foster, I know you like to fight," (*acknowledge reality—both emotion and fact*) "but no more fighting . . ." (*Foster will probably reject this*) ". . . in my room . . ." (*this gives Foster a little breathing space*) ". . . this period . . ." (*the limited time frame is realistic*) ". . . or . . ." (*here come the consequences, upon which Foster will base his decision*) ". . . you'll have to talk to me again." (*The implication here is that if Foster follows your directions, you'll get off his case. If he doesn't, he'll be faced with this verbal confrontation again, and Foster is not a verbal person.*)

Having spelled out new directions, the teacher is responsible for seeing to it that they are followed and that the consequences of following or not following occur. The principle is to reward good behavior and punish bad.

You must realize, however, that whether an activity is a punishment or a reward depends on how the student views the consequence. In Foster's case, talk is clearly a punishment. Another student might really enjoy a private chat with you.

Can you remember a time when your directions were unclear or impossible to follow?

T—Track the student's progress. Keeping simple, written, private records is the key to making the LEAST program work. Not only is the record vital to your decision making, it adds clout when you need to involve others. The content of the records should be simple:

- What happened
- When it happened
- Who was involved
- What you did about it.

For example, remember tardy and disruptive Tom?

LEAST Really Works, Say Classroom Teachers

As a primary teacher, I have found that my old methods work better now that I have incorporated them into a systematic method of dealing with discipline. It's a relief to know when I enter my classroom that I have not only well-prepared lesson plans but also a well-prepared discipline plan for my children.

With Andy, for example, I can usually handle his misbehavior by intervening at one of LEAST's first three levels. This youngster decided to try me on the first day of school. I had asked all the children to stand and sing "My Country 'Tis of Thee." Andy did not stand. He looked straight at me, begging for a negative reaction. I refused to give it to him. Instead, I decided to *leave the situation alone.* No one was being harmed, there was no indication that the other children would imitate him, and I felt that anything I might say would only reinforce his behavior.

What I did do was commend the class on how nicely they had stood and sung and tell them how happy I was to have such good children in my room this year. The next day when we all stood to sing, so did Andy.

—Eleanor Coleman, *primary teacher, Williams School, Little Rock, Arkansas; past president, Little Rock Classroom Teachers Association.*

When I use it consistently, I find that the LEAST approach practically eradicates discipline problems. What works best for me is Level S, *spelling out directions* in a positive manner. This is probably because I work harder at this level, which was my weakest area.

For example, Michelle, one of my sixth graders, is constantly in trouble in all her classes. She mutters aloud; pokes other students; and when all else fails, makes guttural noises until she gets a response. She seems to have a negative attitude toward life, and all her classmates respond negatively to her.

The day I decided to *spell out directions* for her, Michelle had been making noises in her throat and tapping with a pencil and her feet. I asked her to speak to me after class. During our discussion, I described the positive results for her of a more positive attitude: She might begin to enjoy class and have friends if she smiled, participated in class work, tried to do her own work, and perhaps even helped others who were having problems. I also explained the consequences of continuing misbehavior—for example, I would have to isolate her so she would not disturb others.

Since our talk, I have monitored both Michelle's behavior and my own. I have to watch myself to be sure I use positive

We decided, at the time, to *leave it alone.* As it turned out—

L, leave it alone, did not work. Tom kept being tardy and continued to be noisy about it.

E, end the action, did not work either.

A, attend more fully, produced some information, but

S, spell out directions, failed to have impact.

T, track the student's progress, is going to help.

First, let's follow Tom's case as it would develop without the written record. In a final and futile act of frustration, Tom's teacher sends him to the office, in accordance with school policy on tardiness. Tom walks in and catches the secretary's attention, and the following dialog ensues:

Secretary: What's your name?
Tom: Tom _____.
Secretary: Why are you here?
Tom: Dunno.
Secretary: Who sent you?
Tom: Mr. _____.

All of a sudden it is the *teacher* who is presenting the office with a problem, whose behavior has become suspect.

Let's run the episode again, this time showing what can happen when the teacher keeps records that show—

- The date and time of each tardiness
- What action the teacher took each time Tom was tardy
- Other information about the pattern of tardiness.

Having kept the record of Tom's behavior, the teacher can predict with some degree of accuracy that Tom will be late again. He has summarized the information, in writing, for the appropriate person in the office and given notice to both Tom and the office that the next time Tom is tardy, he is to go to the office in person. Sure enough, the prediction was accurate—Tom is tardy again.

Consequently, when Tom finally does show up in the office, he does so not as the result of the last act of a frustrated teacher but as the logical consequence of his own behavior. Listen to the dialog this time:

Secretary: What's your name?
Tom: Tom _____.
Secretary: We've been expecting you.

In conclusion, when handling discipline in the classroom:

- Keep your cool
- Keep your sense of humor
- Keep your problems as small as possible because
- The LEAST you can do is often the best thing to do.

—**Richard M. Mallory,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development (IPD).*

The preceding article is a dramatic compression of an all-day workshop devoted to the LEAST approach to classroom management which was originally developed by Robert R. Carkhuff. Mallory is also coauthor, with Carkhuff and Andrew H. Griffin of the IPD staff, of *The LEAST Approach to Classroom Discipline.* This workshop is available to affiliates of NEA. For further information, contact your local UniServ unit or call NEA-IPD at (202) 833-4337.

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directions. Occasionally, I am tempted to say, "Michelle, cut that out." But, so far, I've managed to say instead, "Michelle, please read the first paragraph so we can all find the answers." According to my Level T *tracking* system, the new directions are working. Michelle exhibits negative and undesirable behavior less frequently, and other adults have begun to notice the change. Her peers also do not seem to be quite so hostile toward her as before.

—**Norene Fiacco,** *teacher, Paducah (Kentucky) Independent School System, and president, Paducah (Kentucky) Education Association.*

We teachers have been inundated with the *don'ts* of discipline, but left to fend for ourselves where the *do's* are concerned. LEAST gives me concrete suggestions about what I can *do.*

Jane and Patty are the proverbial magpies in my class. Like clockwork, they arrive outside my classroom before sixth period and find me on corridor duty. The darlings produce a scenario for me in the hallway.

"Mama [that's me], Jane hit me in the head with her book and told me she'd beat me up if I told you."

"Oh, Patty's just lying to you. She's chewing gum and she said you wouldn't make her spit it out."

Most of the time, a dialogue like this is amusing. I find, however, that there's a direct correlation between lateness in the day and shortness of my temper. So there are times when I am tempted to respond to the girls with negative remarks like "get inside the room" or "stop that foolishness."

Negative responses like these are the result of my putting myself first. By expressing them, I would deprive Patty and Jane of the opportunity to entertain and I would take away the special feeling they get from having my undivided attention. LEAST helps me remember to *leave them alone* and enjoy the humor in their shenanigans.

Of course there are times when Jane's and Patty's feeling of being special carries over into the classroom, where it creates havoc that—if allowed to continue—would destroy decorum. Then I have to *end their actions* before they lead to resentment on the part of my other students.

—**Linda Pondexter,** *social studies teacher, Pulaski East Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas.*

Incorporating LEAST into my existing behavior modification program has been helpful because I am not spending as much time as before on discipline and calling kids down. Level E—*ending the action* with eye contact—works with most of my fifth and sixth graders.

—**Geraldine Moose,** *fifth-sixth grade teacher, A. T. Allen School, Concord, North Carolina.*

Negotiating Student Discipline Policy

A fundamental purpose of collective bargaining is to provide an effective voice for teachers in education policymaking and implementation, especially in matters that directly affect them. Discipline, that is, the control of disruptive student behavior, is obviously such a matter.

Specific student discipline bargaining topics include such items as temporary exclusion of unruly students from the classroom, number of classroom aide positions, and limits on class size. Whether any one of these topics can in fact be the subject of bargaining will vary from state to state.

For example, 31 states have statutes that authorize collective bargaining for teachers. Among other things, these statutes define the scope of bargaining, that is, topics on which negotiation is mandatory for school districts, those on which it is merely permissive, and those on which it is forbidden. Though the statutes differ, in general the so-called economic issues—salary, hours, conditions of work—are mandatory subjects. Issues that are deemed to be matters of educational policy or managerial prerogative are usually permissive subjects; in some instances, they are prohibited. In the 19 states without collective bargaining legislation, obviously no topic of bargaining is mandatory.

Thus collective bargaining cannot resolve every problem about student discipline in every state. Still, through collective bargaining, teachers can try to ensure—within the limits of the humanly possible—that their district's student discipline policy is shaped and implemented in a manner that is effective, unambiguous, and fair.

Before negotiating student discipline procedures, bargainers for teacher associations should be thoroughly knowledgeable about all facets of student discipline. A comprehensive review of pertinent legal provisions is necessary if they expect to overcome the problems that will inevitably arise once they present student discipline proposals at the bargaining table. Below are the areas of state and local law and regulations that relate to teacher discipline of students. Negotiators should study them carefully.

School Law and Discipline. In most states, the statutes that provide for a public school system cover procedures for disciplining students in the schools. These laws generally require teachers as a condition of employment to enforce schools' rules and regulations and to maintain proper supervision and control of students in their charge. Further, most state laws allow teachers the discretion to establish reasonable rules of student conduct that are not at variance with school policy or law. Some state laws also set forth standards to be applied in the use of corporal punishment, and two states (Massachusetts and New Jersey)

specifically forbid its use.

Tort Law and Discipline. Some aspects of teachers' behavior toward students are regulated by the law of torts. The law of torts deals with wrongs one citizen may inflict upon another. For example, if a teacher's conduct in a disciplinary action results in harm to a student, the teacher may be liable under the law of torts for any damages that result. Assault, battery, and intentional infliction of emotional distress are the tortious acts most often complained of in student discipline cases. Some states have laws requiring legal support of teachers or laws "saving them harmless" when they are sued for actions they take in the course of performing their duties. (See *Save Harmless and Liability Insurance Provisions in the Fifty States.* NEA Research, 1978.)

Criminal Law and Discipline. Not only may teachers be held civilly liable for their conduct in student discipline cases, they may also incur liability under the state's criminal statutes. Assault and battery are criminal as well as tortious acts.

School Board Policies and Discipline. Some school boards have written policies governing student discipline. If so, they are part of the teacher's job responsibilities, and teachers may be subject to disciplinary action for failure to follow them.

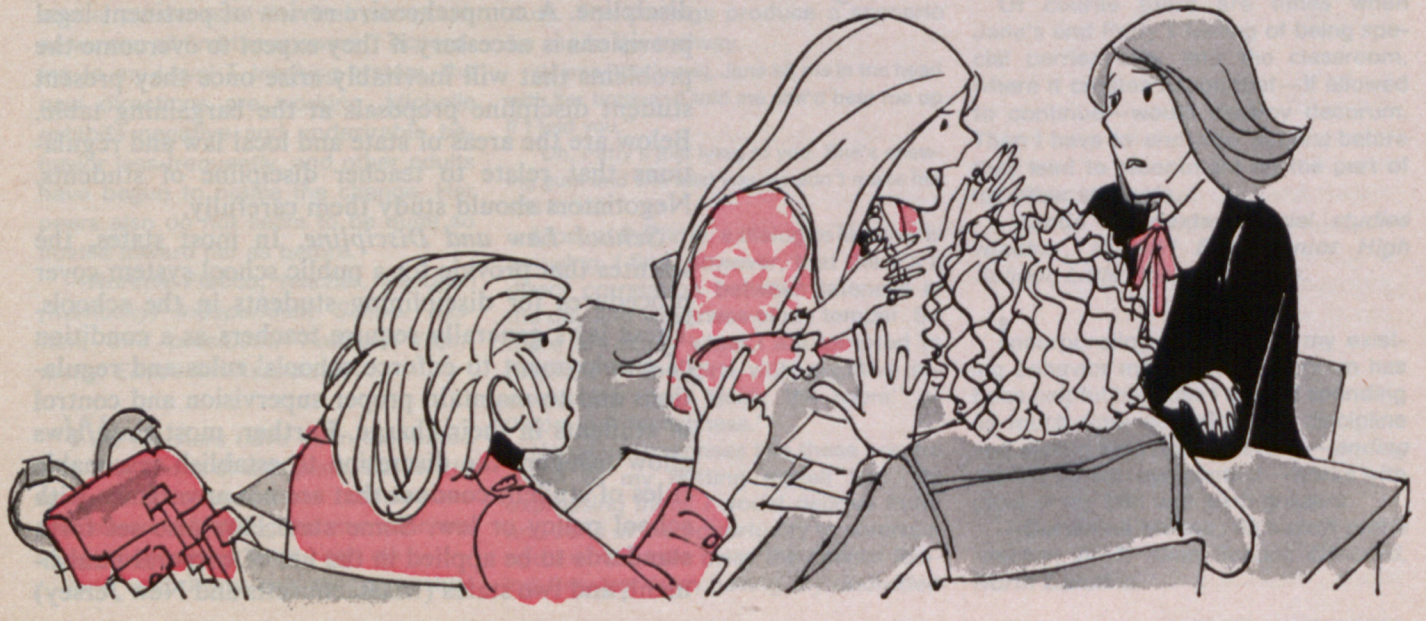
Existing Contractual Provisions and Discipline. Certain employee benefits (e.g., insurance and sick or personal leave) and conditions of work (e.g., class size limits, teacher evaluation procedures, in-service training) that are defined in the current contract may affect or be affected by teachers' responsibilities for student discipline. Negotiators should know the deficiencies, if any, in these articles, and include proposals to eliminate them as part of their overall bargaining plan to help teachers in matters of student discipline.

Rulings by State Public Employee Relations (PER) Boards on Scope of Bargaining. Some state PER boards have ruled that certain aspects of student discipline—for example, student misbehavior that does not threaten teachers' health or safety, or student referral to specialists—are not within the scope of bargaining as defined by their state's bargaining statutes. Association negotiators should be fully apprised of rulings by their state PER board on such matters.

It is not enough to know the legal background of the teacher's obligations with respect to student discipline. An association must also achieve consensus on the bargaining proposals it intends to present to the school board. In order to do so, a survey of the extent of disciplinary problems as well as of teacher attitudes and values related to student discipline is necessary. Such a survey should include at least the following questions:

- How often do the following student behavior problems occur in your school? (List all likely misbehaviors.)
- To what extent are each of the following factors responsible for student misbehavior? (List such topics as class size, lack of administrative support.)
- What do you consider to be the most appropriate

What protection does the teacher have in disciplining her students?



NEA Resolution 78-28. Discipline

The National Education Association believes that discipline is essential in promoting optimum learning in the school. The Association recognizes the concern for the discipline problem.

The Association also believes that boards of education in conjunction with local affiliates should develop policies which would provide necessary administrative support to the classroom teacher for the maintenance of a positive learning environment.

The Association further believes its local affiliates should develop guidelines for effective disciplinary techniques. It urges affiliates to negotiate a process whereby administrators, teachers, parents, and students will be involved in identifying disruptive behavior and prescribing, implementing, and evaluating procedures that will reduce and correct disruptive behavior.

The Association supports legislation that will authorize the classroom teacher to maintain internal classroom management and that will protect the student's right to due process.

response for each of the following behavior problems?

If such a survey is carefully drawn and thoroughly studied, the information gained from it should aid association bargainers in framing proposals that all teachers will support.

Once negotiators know the legal framework and have found out what their members want, they are prepared to draft the association's bargaining proposals. The following is a suggested proposal on student discipline. It is not meant to be a model. Rather it is offered as a drafting guide. The language should be tailored to fit local circumstances and terminology.

Student Discipline and Teacher Protection

The Board recognizes its responsibility to give all reasonable support and assistance to teachers with respect to the maintenance of control and discipline in the classroom. Whenever it appears that a particular pupil requires the attention of special counselors, social workers, law enforcement personnel, physicians or other professional persons, the Board will take reasonable steps to relieve the teacher of responsibilities with respect to such pupil.

It is recognized that discipline problems are less likely to occur in classes where a high level of student interest is maintained. It is likewise recognized that when discipline problems occur, they may most constructively be dealt with by encouragement, praise, and emphasis upon the child's desirable characteristics. A teacher may use such force as is necessary to protect himself or to prevent injury to another student.*

A teacher may exclude a pupil from one class when the grossness of the offense, the persistence of the misbehavior, or the disruptive effect of the violation makes the continued presence of the student in the classroom intolerable. In such cases, the teacher will furnish the principal, as promptly as his teaching obligations will allow, full particulars of the incident in writing.

Procedures for suspension of students from school shall be distributed to students, teachers, and parents each year. School authorities will endeavor to achieve correction of student misbehavior through counseling and interviews with the child and his parents when warranted. Transfer of the student to another teacher or other measures, short of suspension, will first be exhausted. When a teacher has one or more pupils in class who constitute serious behavioral problems, appropriate recognition shall be given by way of reduced class size or greater or more frequent relief periods.

Any case of assault upon a teacher shall be promptly reported to the Board or its designated representative. The Board will provide legal counsel to advise the teacher of his rights and obligations with respect to such assault and shall promptly render all reasonable assistance to the teacher in connection with handling of the incident by law enforcement and judicial authorities.

If any teacher is complained against or sued as a result of any action taken by the teacher while in pursuit of his employment, the Board will provide legal counsel and render all necessary assistance to the teacher in his defense.

Time lost by a teacher in connection with any incident mentioned in this Article shall not be charged against the teacher.

The Board will reimburse a teacher for any loss, damage, or destruction of clothing or personal property of the teacher while on duty in the school or on the school premises.

No action shall be taken upon any complaint by a parent of a student directed toward a teacher, nor shall any notice thereof be included in said teacher's personnel file, unless such matter is promptly reported in writing to the teacher concerned. If any question of breach of professional ethics is involved, the Association shall be notified.

The Board and the Association shall mutually develop administrative guidelines for the implementation of this Article and of any other matter related to Student Discipline not specifically treated in this Article. The Board agrees to indemnify teachers against any damages, fines, legal fees, or other costs as a consequence of any act or omission authorized by a written statement of the Board or by the provisions of this paragraph.

This is a straightforward proposal that covers the essentials: it affirms administrative support for teachers, prevents teachers from being burdened with students in need of specialized care, sets forth procedures for temporarily excluding disruptive students from class, publicizes to all concerned the rules about corporal punishment, and guarantees teachers legal support and being saved harmless if they are sued as a result of performing their duties. (No contract language can be fashioned, of course, that guarantees that teachers will not be sued for allegedly negligent behavior or prosecuted for allegedly criminal behavior.)

Putting provisions on discipline into the contract is desirable because they can then be implemented by means of the grievance procedure. That opens up the possibility of review by a disinterested third party—an arbitrator—and third-party review is the ultimate guarantee of fair treatment for all teachers.

In negotiating proposals similar to those in the above guide, association bargainers must not forget other topics that have a great bearing on teachers'

*For a statement of the NEA position on corporal punishment, see *Today's Education*, November-December 1978, page 55.

ability to control students' behavior. In fact, in the long run, contract articles relating to such issues as class size, specialist support, and paraprofessional assistance are probably more crucial to control of students' behavior than the procedural items contained in the drafting guide. However, these articles are more difficult to negotiate, given fiscal limits and limits imposed by scope-of-bargaining provisions. The former are probably the more difficult to overcome.

As for scope-of-bargaining limits, the closer the connection bargainers can demonstrate between a so-called educational policy, like class size, and teachers' work load—a mandatory subject for bargaining in most states—the greater their leverage at the table.

Rather than present discipline topics as unrelated to other bargaining topics, association negotiators need to negotiate the teachers' total work load, of which student discipline is a part. In so doing, they will want to link proposals on nonmandatory items to mandatory ones, presenting them as a way of easing the burdens of overworked teachers. Then, as board members struggle with these proposals, they may come around to the view that limiting class size, for example, is a more palatable and realistic way to reduce the work load of teachers than is agreeing to proposals on, say, extra pay, more preparation time, or reduced working hours. All this means is simply that if collective bargaining is to fulfill its promise of providing an effective teacher voice in education decision making, association bargainers must make more imaginative, comprehensive, and fully integrated bargaining proposals than in the past.

If association negotiators are fully knowledgeable on key aspects of student discipline, have specific bargaining proposals tailored to local conditions, and integrate these proposals into a comprehensive bargaining effort to place reasonable limits on the total work load of teachers, they will be well prepared to face the difficulties of the bargaining table when negotiating student discipline articles.

—**John Dunlop,** *Manager, NEA Office of Negotiations.*

RESOURCES ON DISCIPLINE

In addition to disseminating the LEAST program, NEA and several state affiliates provide publications and other resources on discipline. Examples include—

- The NEA/National Institute of Education In-Service Education Project, which disseminates information about in-service packages on discipline. Call the toll-free in-service hot line at (800) 424-9862. (Callers from the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area should dial 833-4349 instead.)
- Cary, Eve. *What Every Teacher Should Know About Student Rights.* National Education Association, 1975. 41 pp. This booklet is designed to help classroom teachers better understand student rights in the light of recent court decisions.
- Kohut, Sylvester, Jr., and Range, Dale G. *Classroom Discipline: Case Studies and Viewpoints.* National Education Association, 1979. 112 pp. This book connects the theoretical and the practical aspects of discipline. It provides a review of theory, research, and practice as well as case studies suitable for pre- and in-service education of teachers, counselors, and supervisors.
- NEA Publishing has produced an extensive multimedia program on discipline. The kit consists of five paperback books, two research reports, a four-part audiotape packet, leaflets for distribution to parents, two color/sound filmstrips, and a cassette tape discussion of discipline and motivation. For a full description of the materials, with ordering information, write to Department TD, NEA Publishing, Room 609, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.
- "The Crisis in Student Behavior." *Pennsylvania School Journal* (Pennsylvania State Education Association), October 1976. Issue theme. The issue contains pertinent excerpts from negotiated contracts and information about discipline policies and procedures in the state. Limited quantities are available from the *Journal* at PSEA, 400 N. 3rd St., Harrisburg, PA 17101.
- "Discipline Without Tears," a workshop on techniques of classroom control developed for the Minnesota Education Association by Charles La Bounte and Steve Jongewaard of Hamlin University. For information, contact Nancy Sinks at MEA, 41 Sherburne Ave., St. Paul, MN 55103.

Additional Resources

- Dreikurs, Rudolph, and others. *Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom: Illustrated Teaching Techniques.* Harper and Row, 1971. 23 pp. Based on principles of Adlerian psychology, this book illustrates the value of interdisciplinary teamwork for classroom discipline—with psychiatrist and social worker supporting the experienced classroom teacher.
- Ernst, Ken. *Games Students Play: And What To Do About Them.* Celestial Arts (Millbrae, Calif.), 1972. 127 pp. This book describes the use of transactional analysis to solve problems among students, teachers, administrators, and parents.
- Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.* Harper and Row, 1969. 235 pp. Like his *Reality Therapy,* this book by William Glasser promotes a positive philosophy and describes techniques of eliminating failure and encouraging success among students. The author suggests a grading system that he feels will motivate students by giving them increased confidence.

Documentary films describing Glasser's approach to discipline are available. For information, contact the in-service hot line mentioned above.

- Gordon, Thomas. *T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training.* Wyden, 1974. 365 pp. Developed from the workshops Thomas Gordon conducts for teachers, this book explains humanistic discipline techniques based on student-centered problem solving and active listening. Dr. Gordon is also author of *P.E.T.: Parent Effectiveness Training.*
- James, Muriel, and Jongeward, Dorothy. *Born To Win: Transactional Analysis with Gestalt Experiments.* Addison-Wesley, 1971. 297 pp. This book discusses two methods—transactional analysis and gestalt experiments—of analyzing, understanding, and changing human behavior, with the special aim of developing self-confidence.
- Kaufman, Bel. *Up The Down Staircase.* Prentice-Hall, 1964. 240 pp. An antidote for those who have become morbid about teaching.
- North Carolina Department of Public Instruction. *Discipline in Schools: A Source Book.* The Department, 1978. 69 pp. The booklet argues that in a well-disciplined school, students, teachers, and administrators concentrate "in a close, vibrant way" on "the common goals of learning." The booklet suggests practical techniques for achieving such a situation. It may be purchased for $3 from the Publications Office, Dept. of Public Instruction, Education Building, Raleigh, NC 27611.

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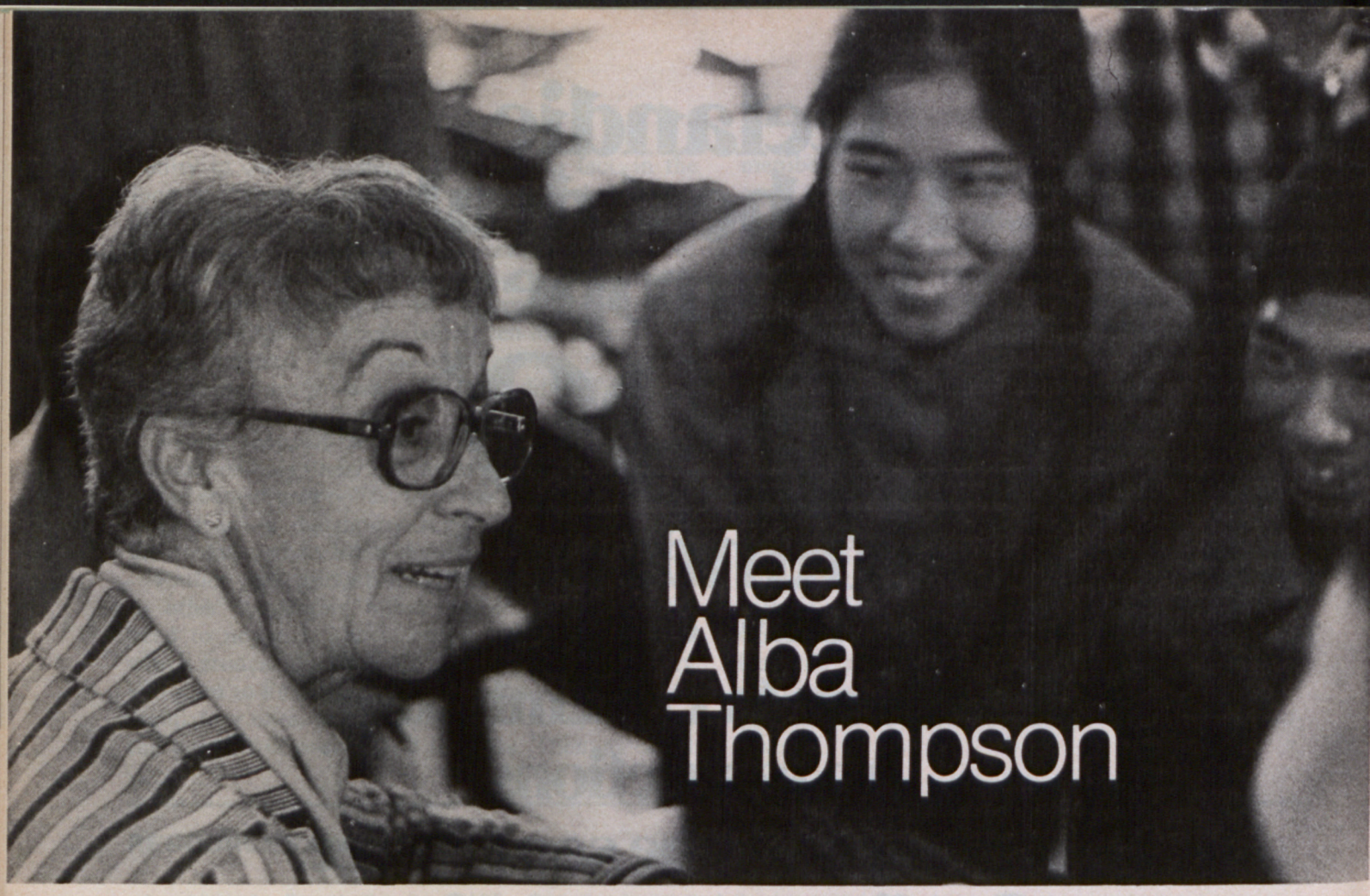

Meet Alba Thompson

The Far East was the setting for this interview—a particularly fitting one for a dialogue with Alba Thompson, who has had an almost lifelong interest in that part of the world. Ms. Thompson served with the U.S. occupation forces in the Far East after World War II. She teaches two courses that deal with this part of the world—World Cultures and Asian Studies—at Plymouth-Carver High School in Plymouth, Massachusetts. (She also teaches a course called Community.) She has taken a myriad of college-level courses on the Far East—including the three-month travel-study program sponsored by NEA last fall, the NEA Institute on Japan/East Asia.

While on the Institute, Elizabeth E. Yeary, assistant editor of Today's Education, *talked with Alba Thompson about her experiences in the Far East and in education in the United States.*

Can you sum up in a few sentences what the Institute is?

I think so. This program offers a way to understand the Far East, the people, the history, the culture, that would enrich any teacher both by the course content—the lectures, readings, films—and also by the experiences in the Far East—school visits, eating the foods of the different countries, using the public transportation in the places we visit.

We have gotten some real insights into the countries we've visited—six weeks in Japan, 10 days in Korea, two weeks in the People's Republic of China.

What were your reactions to what you saw in the Chinese schools?

First of all, I was absolutely shocked at what an elemental level the Chinese schools are on physically. I don't think I have ever seen schools as bare as those schools were in terms of materials and of ordinary things like proper lighting.

That they have 50 and more students in one classroom with good teaching and learning going on was a surprise to me. Granted, the teaching and learning are based mostly on rote memorization, unison responses, and very little individualized instruction.

I was amazed at how highly motivated the students are. They did not need to be entertained. The lack of any observable discipline problems in those large classrooms was another enormous plus.

Did you see anything in the Chinese schools that you think American teachers and schools should adopt?

The one great lesson for me was that we can challenge students and work them harder than we have. Naturally we have to keep in mind the requirements of other classes and students' obligations outside of school—jobs and home chores. Nevertheless, we could demand much more of our students.

Something else I learned, too. Excellent foreign language teaching is going on in China. Even the fourth and fifth graders were being taught by the oral-aural method.

I learned my Japanese that way. I'm sold on the method. In my high school, our language teachers are using it a great deal.

Do you think your teaching will change in the next semester as a result of this trip?

Oh, yes. Watching Japanese and Korean and Chinese education confirmed what I have always known—as I mentioned before, it showed me that education at the high school level should be a rigorous intellectual experience as well as, whenever possible, a pleasurable one. I see that students in Japan and Korea and China do rigorous work and benefit from it. I see that I ought to be even more rigorous than I have been before with my students.

When you say *more rigorous*, what do you mean? More reading assignments? More project work?

All of that. But I don't mean to inundate students with just more work; I want to challenge them more. For example, I have always had students read novels dealing with particular aspects of our studies. In Asian studies, I always assign Pearl Buck's *The Good Earth* and Yukio Mishima's novel of young love, *Sound of Waves,* translated from the Japanese. But I usually avoid assigning more rigorous works like *The Tale of Genji* by Murasaki Shikibu, except for that one exceptionally bright student. I see now that that is ridiculous. All my students are capable of understanding some parts of it.

In other words, I am going to throw a great deal at them and see what happens. I have always had students write Chinese characters. I am going to do lots more of that. We always study Japanese arts and ceramics, but now I am going to get my students into the art room and have them make pots. I am not going to talk about it. We are going to do it.

On the Institute, I have talked with other teachers who are using textbooks other than the ones I am using and who have developed curriculums in Asian Studies. Some of them sound rather good. I am going to get copies and look at those.

I'm just inspired and excited and looking forward to going back into my classroom.

What three or four sources would you recommend to a teacher who is going to start an Asian Studies class?

My basic texts in Asian Studies are from a Houghton-Mifflin series. I use two of the series: one called *China* and one called *Japan.* Each has a good bibliography and a pleasant format. Both are paperbacks, well-illustrated, but lacking somewhat in maps.

Now, a companion piece goes with each one of these: *Selected Readings on China* and *Selected Readings on Japan.* Terrific, because students get impressions from those who actually had experiences in these countries. There's a comment from Marco Polo and one from Chiang Kai-shek, for example.

Earlier I mentioned some of the novels I use in Asian studies. To those, I add *Hiroshima* by John Hersey.

You mentioned the foreign language teachers in your school. Do you ever get them to work with any of your classes?

I wish I could say I do more than I do. The head of the Language Department, who taught in Japan, came into my Asian Studies and World Cultures classes to show her slides of Japan. That kind of thing, yes, but I don't have a day-by-day exchange going on.

Is an Asian language taught in your school?

No, but I'm fortunate, one Japanese American and one Chinese American teach there. Odo Wang, who is a physics teacher, was born and brought up in China. When we study the Chinese language, he comes into my class to help me. The Japanese American, Yoshiro Sanbonmatsu, who is in the English Department, has led me to some excellent resource materials.

How do you deal with controversial subjects with your students?

If there's controversy, I let it rip and try to get the youngsters to research the different sides of the question.

Do you introduce a controversial subject yourself, or do you wait until a student brings it up?

Either way. In the case of the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, for example, if the topic hasn't come up by the time we get to the study of World War II, I sometimes show a powerful and moving film, made from Japanese documentary sources which shows Hiroshima after the bomb dropped.

After the students see the film, the questions begin. I don't attempt to answer them. I send the students to the library and to talk to veterans of the War and to other people who lived during the War to get the answers.

Do you ever interject your own opinions on this subject?

Never—unless some student asks me point blank. If this student has already collected data on the subject and has already thought it through I will say what I think.

Have you ever had any difficulty with administrators or parents or students when you teach this aspect of World War II?

No. If you're really asking, "How do your classes usually feel about this issue?" I'm afraid that to some extent I stack the cards with that film. Maybe I should do it the other way around, have the students search for the data first and then show the film, because it is so terrible that almost no one can withstand the emotional pull of it.

Sometimes I don't show the film at all in the course of that discussion. I do it at the end of the year, after we finish studying Japan, when I know that the emotional impact is not as direct. Strangely enough, sometimes I show it just before Christmas. Peace on earth? What does it really mean? ➔

Does anyone ever imply that you may be throwing cold water on Christmas by showing the film then?

No.

Have you ever felt that way?

No.

On this trip to Japan, you went to Hiroshima. What are you reactions to the day you spent there?

I had seen Hiroshima from the crest of a hill all by myself perhaps three or four weeks after the bomb had fallen. At that time, I had a feeling of being terribly alone in a world that had been destroyed.

On this trip to Japan with the Institute, I felt that I had to return to Hiroshima, and I was glad that there were others who felt that they had to go, too.

I was surprised to see the city so revitalized. It looks like any other Japanese industrial city.

Touring the Peace Museum with its terrible reminders of the bomb—the shredded kimonos, the melted metal, the film of the destruction—was a moving experience. There were practically no Westerners in the Museum except our own small group of four. I had this awful feeling that the Japanese were looking at me and saying, "Is she American? Does she come from the nation that did this thing?" But they did not look at me with any feeling in their eyes. Were they impassive, or were they feeling dreadful underneath, as I was? I don't know.

I know that it was very hard for me not to cry. Not because the scenes were so terrible, because I have seen horror before. But because something besides Hiroshima died on that day the bomb fell. Our innocence died. As terrible as war was until then, it is infinitely more terrible to consider now. Being in Hiroshima reminded me of how difficult it is for us to preserve our world.

I assume one of the goals for your courses is to instill international understanding and a respect for other cultures. How do you attempt to reach this goal?

This thread runs through all the courses I teach—even Community. In that course, I have the students study the ethnic groups that make up our town. I also have them do genealogies to discover where they came from. Of course, I have to offer options on this assignment: because of multiple marriages and other family situations, some families may object to this kind of research. Sometimes a student will research only one side of the family.

As students move through the process, they become proud of what they are and proud of the tradition from which they come, although they uncover all kinds of people who are not admirable. That's part of the story, too.

In all three of my classes, I invite people who came to this country as immigrants to talk with us. They tell us, for instance, what it means to grow up in an Italian family in the United States or what it means to go to school unable to speak English.

In Asian Studies, our visitors are almost all Asians. Recently, our community has had an infusion of immigrants who are Vietnamese, Korean, and Chinese.

How many years have you lived in Plymouth?

Well, I was born and brought up there and can almost say I never left home until I went off to college.

I had taught there only two years after college when World War II came along, and I went into the Women's Army Corps. Then I never came home to live in Plymouth until nine years ago. In between, I had been 10 years in the military, eight with the United Nations, and four on the board of education in Livingston, New Jersey.

How did you decide to go into the military?

I wanted to serve the country in World War II. I began in the Women's Army Corps, but before long, I was selected for the Air Force. I worked with it as a supply officer.

After I had learned all I wanted to about supply, I applied for a new post—one in which I thought I would learn to fly jet planes. As it turned out, I did not learn how to fly jets. Instead, I and many others were prepared to work in teams to rehabilitate the Far East when the war was over. Our job was to start the water going through the mains, to open up the schools, to get the government functioning again.

How long did the training take?

It was supposed to take six months. Actually, we had only three months before we were sent to the Far East.

Why was that?

Because the two atomic bombs were dropped on Japan. Soon after the bombings, I was sent over to Japan, on a troop ship with 16 women and something like 5,000 men.

At this point, Japan had been thoroughly bombed in conventional ways. Practically no cities had been spared. The country had been starved by a blockade around the islands. The people were prostrate.

When I arrived in Yokohama, the loud speaker was announcing that I, Captain Martinelli, was to proceed to Tokyo. I didn't know how I was to proceed in that maelstrom of men and equipment, so, in my innocence, I got on the railroad.

The public railroad?

The Japanese public railroad. Remember, this is only a few weeks after the A-bombs were dropped.

Now, consider what a conqueror I was—5′1″ and weighing about 116 pounds, somewhat bedraggled and having a hard time breathing because of all the odors. I had gotten a seat luckily, or is it that they gave me a seat? At any rate, I sat there practicing my Japanese.

I made it to Tokyo. I remember vast stretches of destruction on both sides of the track all the way.

On the train trip and during your early days in Tokyo, did you expect hostility?

I certainly did. I didn't know how I was going to deal with it if I encountered it.

Yet you took the train trip alone?

Yes. I don't know why. I have always gone through life with no fear of what I see. I fear the unknown. You know, whatever is under the bed scares me silly.

Were the Japanese in fact hostile toward you?

No. Nothing ever happened to me. Nobody spit at me. Nobody growled at me.

Why do you think that was?

The occupation had been rather carefully thought out. Witness the fact that many like myself had been trained for occupation. We were prepared to deal with the Japanese—their hopes, their aspirations, their way of life.

Also, General MacArthur and his staff had recommended to the President that the Emperor of Japan keep his position and that our military gov-

ernment speak through him. The Emperor had prepared the people for the surrender. They listened to him as they would listen to their fathers, because the Emperor, after all, is the father figure of the nation.

The role of the Emperor is explained quite well in Ruth Benedict's *The Chrysanthemum and the Sword.* Did you read that before you arrived in Japan?

I don't think the book was published yet, but we got the benefit of Benedict's research that had been published. We read that, along with a lot of other material on the Japanese.

Did you know General MacArthur personally?

The General was not a person that you knew intimately. I never heard him refer to anybody by first name. Very few people can claim that the General ever said anything to them that was of a personal nature. It was work, work, work as far as the General was concerned. I knew him as Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers. Only now and then did I get glimpses of the man.

Did you think highly of him?

Yes. I did then and I do now, despite the controversy over some aspects of his career.

What exactly was your role on the General's staff?

I was acting as an adviser to the government. My duty in the government section in Japan didn't last that long, though, because they needed people in Korea to do the same thing.

When I arrived in Seoul, the people were prostrate. They had been milked of their resources to support the Japanese war effort. They had no leaders. All of the people who had previously served in responsible positions had been Japanese or, if they were Korean collaborators, they were no longer acceptable to the Korean people. Our task was enormous, but challenging.

You came to this assignment with a background in education. Did you actually work with the Japanese or Korean schools?

When I had a choice of being assigned to the Education and Information Section in Japan, I preferred the Government Section. The same thing happened in Korea. From my vantage point I could watch it all being done—education, agriculture, industry. Everything passed through the office in which I worked.

I liked the people. I liked the work. I think that if I had not been romantically involved, I probably would have stayed in the Far East.

You met your husband in Korea?

Yes. He was on MacArthur's staff, too. By the end of 1949, we were married and at home in the United States. I decided to leave the armed forces. My husband and I both went into graduate school: the Asia Institute in New York City, which has since moved to Shiraz, Iran.

I got my M.A. Then the children came along, and I got into the PTA, and because I was interested in the schools, I ran for the school board in Livingston, New Jersey, where we had built our house.

How long did you serve on the board?

Four years, 1960 to 1964. The last two years I was president. I tell you that because those board members, except for one other woman, were hard-nosed businessmen, and they ran education as a profit-and-loss kind of thing. For them to elect me—who had quite a different view of education—president was a bit unusual.

Then you decided not to run?

Yes, I turned my attention to the United Nations. I was the UN representative—called a nongovernmental observer—for the National Federation of Business and Professional Women. I could observe and, in some instances, present the views of my organization at meetings of UN bodies. For example, meetings of the Commission on the Status of Women were of great interest to the Federation.

In those same years, I was also lecturing for a commercial lecture bureau. I had about six lectures that I gave to organizations such as the American Legion and the Rotary. Most of them had to do with the Far East or the UN or the status of women.

How did you get back into teaching again after the break in service?

Serving on the board of education piqued my interest, or reinterest, in things educational. Once I was off the board, I worked in the Livingston schools.

Then when my husband retired and we moved to Plymouth, I got a teaching job there.

Let's talk about your family. You mentioned your children. What do they do?

I have a 26-year-old son, Loren, who is in the last year of the doctoral program in international relations at Georgetown University in Washington, D.C. The other son, Anthony, is 24 and is a firefighter. He's married and has two daughters.

And your husband?

My husband died in December of 1977.

Our interest in the Far East had been the basis of a large part of our lives together—our hobbies, our writings, our lecturing; his collections of stamps, coins, snuff bottles; our joint collection of books; my collection of Bodhisattvas.

If you were granted three wishes for American education, what would they be?

The one that jumps into my mind first is to have the highest calibre people go into teaching. And somehow I would hope that they would use their potential and that they would work very hard on the job. I want to be proud of the people who are supposed to be guiding, if not the center of, the classroom.

The second—yes—I've got it. It comes out of my experience in the Far East. I could wish for a return to education being one of the highest priorities in American life. I'm old enough to remember when this was the case. It certainly is in many countries of the Far East.

What is my number three? I hope that values well worth inculcating and well worth building on would return to American education so that teachers and students alike won't need to ask, "What is it that we value?"

There are some things in the common good such as honesty and an appreciation of American democracy and what it has tried to do. Deep down inside we ought to be able to be proud of our country because of the wonderful things which have come out of it. I think we have buried that, lost that, thought it was not campy enough, whatever. We need to get back to that.

Maybe if we can teach appreciation of other countries, we can teach appreciation of our own?

Oh, you're sneaky. That's exactly what I'm trying to do. □

The East Ramapo Teachers' Center

In the fall of 1978, the teachers of the East Ramapo, New York, school district began operating a federally funded teacher center. More than half the members of the center's policy board are teachers; the rest are school board members, administrators, and other citizens. Already, the effect on what has been a seriously divided community seems little short of miraculous.

Two years ago, the 1,000 teachers, the taxpayers, school administrators, and school board members of this Rockland County district were at odds with one another. Budget and tax problems—though certainly not unique—had produced an unusually severe degree of polarization. Factions of the education community quarreled loudly. Teachers' morale had reached an all-time low.

The situation has now changed considerably. Today, because of the teacher center, the community has begun to feel better about supporting its schools, and school people's morale has improved in turn. The different groups responsible for the schools have seen an experiment in cooperation begin to succeed.

The East Ramapo Teachers' Center is one of three selected for funding in New York State. Currently, it is having its share of both success and growing pains as it settles into its function of helping teachers and improving educational services in the community.

President Richard Mullin of the East Ramapo Teachers' Association (ERTA) and Superintendent Jack Anderson of the East Ramapo schools agree: the first hurdle blocking a proposal to establish a teacher center is built-in resistance to the creation of a policy-making board controlled by teachers. Mullin and Anderson didn't let the resistance stop them.

This center is truly managed by teachers. All its programs are designed by teachers. We were determined that teachers would be in charge here, and not only in theory, Mullin says.

The ERTA president credits Anderson with helping some board members accept the idea of a teacher-run center without feeling that it threatened their mandate to run the school district.

Other school board members, however, support the idea of the Center wholeheartedly. One of them is Georgine Hyde, one of the board's representatives on the policy board of the teacher center. She believes strongly, she says, that the teacher center will become an effective vehicle for staff development.

For his part, Superintendent Anderson maintains that he has never been dismayed by the federal funding requirement that more than half the members of the Center's policy board be teachers. He notes, however, that many of his colleagues across the state have resisted the teacher center concept because "collective bargaining and tough fiscal times have heightened those built-in attitudes held on both sides about control."

ERTA approached the East Ramapo school board about establishing a teacher center during the heat of negotiations. After negotiations were completed, Anderson convinced skeptics on the board that if they rejected the idea they would be missing a great opportunity to improve educational services in the community.

In speaking with school administrators and board members from other districts, Anderson stresses the need for districts to grow professionally and locally, the need to recognize that "teachers are the experts when it comes to education, and the need to increase cooperation among all parts of the education community."

"We have had nothing but good experiences," Anderson says. Any time a school board refuses to accept the teachers' control of the center and exercises its right not to approve a proposal, he adds, "it stands a chance of hardening the lines forever."

The second hurdle in the establishment of a teacher center, its East Ramapo advocates found, is the drafting of the proposal itself. State and federal regulations require that it meet certain criteria for the composition of the policy board, include evidence of

By LINDA ROSENBLATT
Communications Specialist, New York Educators Association, Albany.

long-range planning, and fit the needs of the district the center is to serve.

Finally, when a teacher center proposal is funded, the hurdle of carrying it out appears.

The East Ramapo Teachers' Center is housed in what was once a disused media center crammed with discarded materials and trash. The layout was suitable, however—a large open space and several small adjoining rooms. Since it opened, office supplies have appeared, and a stock of books, tools, and materials is accumulating. By late winter, the facility even boasted a greenhouse.

The Center is open until 5 on school days, longer if a class or a meeting is scheduled. It has been open most Saturdays, too, and even for a few days during Christmas vacation.

By early spring, the East Ramapo Teachers' Center was moving nicely toward meeting the six goals set forth in its proposal:

- Facilitating the transfer of handicapped students into a regular school program through a program of strategies designed and delivered by teachers
- Improving the instructional program of students who speak English as a second language by giving their teachers suitable techniques and useful information about the students' background
- Developing a set of strategies for putting the district's new math curriculum into practice
- Developing a sequential writing program for grades 7 through 12
- Encouraging teachers to participate in the Center's activities through a systematic, ongoing communications and public relations program
- Providing continuous opportunities for teachers to meet, solve problems, exchange ideas, and develop their own materials for classroom use.

The Center's first major project was the math strategies course, which two teachers planned and presented. By March, 21 elementary school teachers had received 15 hours of instruction in the course.

Another teacher organized the course on teaching handicapped students in the regular classroom, which a series of consultants is presenting.

The Center has offered many minicourses which meet for from one to four two-hour sessions. Topics have ranged from making a learning game to values clarification. Teachers don't come by just for scheduled workshops, however; they drop in to make classroom materials, read, or get ideas.

Gail Reynolds, a teacher and ERTA activist, chairs the East Ramapo Teachers' Center Policy Board. "Before the teacher center," she recalls, "it seemed as though everybody concentrated on what had been lost. The atmosphere was one of frustration on all sides. People had become disenchanted with education, and it had not always met their expectations."

Now, Reynolds contends, the success of the math course furnishes a "perfect example of how we can enrich the district's programs, our own performance, and the kind of education our kids will get." Teachers' involvement in Center activities has raised morale, she says, and put the emphasis on what has been gained.

Reynolds is enthusiastic about the idea of the course on educating handicapped children in regular classes:

> We will augment existing programs by working with teachers, helping them with teaching techniques geared to these children's special needs.
>
> People in the community tend to forget that teachers' initial training is concerned with how to deal with a typical child. General studies are not enough to cope with the additional and special needs we are now expected to handle in our schools. The Center will meet the professional's needs to keep up with those demands.

An interesting experience for the members of the teacher center's policy board, Reynolds notes, has been acting as employers of the Center's director and part-time secretary. Policy board members have undertaken many of a manager's duties—interviewing, negotiating contracts, allotting time, providing needed materials, and evaluating their employees.

Center director Karen Wilson is looking at obstacles yet to be overcome and assessing the interests and strengths of the teachers in the district. Wilson herself grew up in the Ramapo district. Since then, she has taught fourth grade, supervised student teachers, and worked in the Wisconsin Native American Teacher Corps and in the Madison, Wisconsin, Teachers' Workshop.

Wilson admits that the first six months have yielded several challenges:

> Getting teachers involved in running this Center and convincing secondary school teachers we have something to offer them are two of the Center's major concerns at the moment. Teachers will not flock to the Center automatically—they need to see the benefits.
>
> To me, the enthusiasm that is generated is more important than the numbers; it will be the best advertising.

Wilson estimates that between 300 and 400 teachers have become involved so far. She emphasizes teachers' contribution to the Center:

> We don't want just one-way involvement. We are encouraging teachers with strong specialties to develop miniworkshops. We want give-and-take in the true sense. This is a place to exchange, not just to take away.

The Center is offering several workshops to attract secondary school teachers. Typical of these are Classroom Management, Stress, Learning To Use Computers, and Yoga.

Besides coordinating, giving workshops, and overseeing classes in the goal areas, Wilson brings the Center's work to the schools. She visits classes, conducting activities with the students, and talks to teachers in the teachers' room to get fresh ideas for the Center. Her field work may become even more extensive: the Center works with teachers from nonpublic schools in the area and also is developing programs for parents.

In assessing the Center's development in its first few months, Reynolds and Wilson point to a growing core of involved teachers. They mention, too, their ambitious proposal for the Center's 1979-80 program. Among the new goals are to develop strategies for teaching gifted and talented children and to update the district's science curriculum (for the first time since 1965) and create teaching strategies for the new curriculum.

Reynolds sums up the Center's contribution to the district so far:

> The Center has given us something I didn't think was still possible in these hard times of confrontation between the community and the educators. We have something to rally around; we have something to share among our professional peers; and we have a vehicle not only for professional improvement but for knocking down all kinds of barriers. □

The Teacher and

During the past decade the federal government has spent billions of dollars on state and local education programs in an effort to help them educate schoolchildren. In most instances this financial aid has been provided for programs designed by federal education officials.

While many of these federal programs have given educators broad parameters within which to work, some have restricted the ability of teachers and administrators to respond fully to local problems or to carry out locally derived solutions. Many teachers, school administrators, and other local officials have complained, in fact, that few federal education programs allow for local innovation.

In 1978, the Rand Corporation published the findings of a 46-month study that it had conducted for the U.S. Office of Education. According to the report, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change,* the study clearly showed the need for federal education officials to reconsider their traditional way of helping state and local education agencies provide youngsters a quality education. This report, especially the eighth and final volume, resulted in some initial misconceptions and a tremendous amount of media attention—most of it negative.

The controversial last volume is called *Implementing and Sustaining Innovations.* It reports the results of the Rand Corporation's examination of federally designed and funded "change-agent programs" in local school systems. Rand found that many local education agencies, influenced by the availability of federal funds, undertook projects developed by federal education officials even though local interest in the program may not have been strong.

Adoption of these projects did not ensure that local school districts would successfully implement them or that the local officials would continue them once the federal funding period came to an end. In fact, Rand said, few change-agent programs developed by the federal government were maintained in operation after federal funding stopped.

Additionally, the Rand study found that—the difference between success and failure [of these programs] depended primarily on how school districts implemented their projects, not on the type of federal sponsorship.

The report went on to state that—

"more" money supplied by federal funds did not necessarily purchase those things that mattered; it did not "buy," for example, more committed teachers, more effective project directors, more concerned principals, and so on. In other words, project outcomes reflected not the amount of funds available, but the quality and behavior of the local staff.

Rand had examined only four programs, which accounted for only a small percentage of the federal money spent each year on education programs and a fraction of the projects administered under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Nevertheless, when the study was released, the entire federal education effort came under fire.

A national wire service reported that Rand had carried out a comprehensive study of programs established by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and found them to be "a failure." In the resulting confusion, many people assumed that the study had examined ESEA Title I and other major education programs in HEW. In fact the study concerned programs operating under ESEA Title III, Innovative Programs (now Title IV-C); ESEA Title VII, Bilingual Education Programs; the Exemplary Programs section of the Vocational Education Act; and the Right-To-Read programs of the Cooperative Research Act.

Because of the misleading press reports, the actual findings, recommendations, and implications of the Rand study were lost on many people. What Rand had actually found was that all the available evidence indicates that local initiative is necessary to the success of change-agent programs.

It found, that is, that projects intended to meet the educational needs of children in a particular school district stand a far greater chance of success if local people have developed the ideas. Federally funded education projects are more likely to obtain the desired results if teachers clearly understand the goals of the projects, if principals actively support the projects, and if local people develop the strategies for carrying out the projects, the Rand study concluded.

Local school districts, in short, will accept innovative educational programs that are federally designed. They are less likely, however, to carry out such programs successfully or to continue them when the federal funds run out than they are when projects are developed by local people.

Rand's findings are consistent with my long-held view of the role of federal education programs and with President Carter's often-stated belief that federal funding should be used to support local school systems in improving educational achievement, not to dictate to them what local education policies or programs should be.

While the results of the Rand study hit some segments of the nation's education community with explosive

By MARY F. BERRY
Assistant Secretary for Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

the Rand Study

force, they did not catch federal officials by surprise. Incorporated in various sections of the Education Amendments of 1978 (PL 95-561) are provisions which give local officials and teachers greater opportunities to initiate development of programs to increase student achievement.

Under the Special Projects section of Title III of the 1978 Education Amendments, direct grants of $25,000 or less can be made to—

teachers, administrators, other educational personnel, and parent organizations to assist in the development or demonstration of innovative methods or techniques which would contribute to the solution of educational problems.

Here again parents have an opportunity to work with teachers and administrators to develop and implement local solutions to local education problems.

Other funds are to support state or local educational agencies in carrying out locally developed plans to help students achieve "educational proficiency." These can be made available through the Educational Proficiency Standards section of the legislation.

Title IV of the 1978 Education Amendments authorizes assistance for locally developed model plans to improve school management and coordinate the use of all available resources in a school. Title IV also authorizes states to use HEW funds for professional development programs for teachers, administrators, and other instructional personnel in school districts.

In all, the recently passed Education Amendments show that, even as the authors of the Rand study were completing their report, the Carter Administration was working closely with Congress to structure legislation which encourages local bodies to develop innovative projects in education.

To assist higher education, HEW has for several years administered the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE). This program funds projects developed by colleges and universities and nonprofit organizations to improve the quality of their educational programs. The schools have continued nearly 85 percent of the programs that they initially undertook with FIPSE funding after the federal funding period expired—a clear indication that they really desired the programs in the first place.

These programs represent an impressive initial federal commitment to supporting state and local educators, parents, teachers, and government officials in their efforts to develop plans to solve their educational problems. We are not yet ready, however, to rest on our laurels.

We are now paying close attention to the recommendations of the Rand study as we move toward reauthorization of the Higher Education Act of 1965. In addition, the study's findings will be of great use to us as we write regulations for the 1978 Education Amendments.

We will do whatever is necessary to maximize the usefulness of the billions of dollars that the federal government spends each year on education. We will continue, for example, to reassess regularly all of our funding programs to determine what structures will best help states and local jurisdictions educate the nation's youth.

The primary responsibility for ensuring that schoolchildren master basic and complex skills—for guaranteeing that after 12 years of schooling youngsters are at least functionally literate—rests with the states. The federal role is a supportive one. Under the leadership of Secretary Joseph A. Califano, Jr., HEW has made a concerted effort to recognize and support the dominant role that states play in educating the people of this nation.

Teachers and teachers associations, such as the National Education Association, have a vital part to play in all of this. Teachers ultimately decide the success or failure of almost any innovative project that is centered in the classroom. For this reason teachers should work with their principals and other state and local education personnel to make sure that they are involved in the structuring of these projects.

As front-line soldiers in the fight to increase educational achievement among schoolchildren, teachers should also actively promote the spread of innovative teaching techniques that they develop. During my extensive travels to school districts across this nation, I have repeatedly been impressed by teachers who have developed novel ways of instructing their students. We encourage teachers with creative instructional methods to develop them—perhaps with funding under the Special Projects provision of the 1978 Education Amendments.

Teachers and teachers associations can actively participate in planning improved approaches to education. With the new small grants discretionary authority at the federal level teachers can originate projects to improve schools and the education that is supposed to take place in them. Teachers in many states already do so, through minigrants for innovation from the state departments of education.

The reauthorized ESEA also requires that teachers be involved in the planning of Title I programs. Teachers must still work, however, to ensure that they are in fact involved in the planning process from the beginning and that they have ample opportunity to participate in making the decisions.

At the state level, teachers must be involved in the development of com-

prehensive teacher training plans, as the 1978 Education Amendments provide. Teachers' participation that is merely pro forma will not result in the delivery of more effective and less costly educational services to the nation's young people. Only the committed and active participation of teachers will be significant in improving school practices and thus increasing achievement.

The Rand report documented what many of us have known for some time now: the ability of the federal government to bring about educational changes is not solely a question of how much money it can spend on a project. The involvement, at all stages of development, of local and state officials (and in many instances of teachers and teachers associations) will decide the ultimate success of new programs.

Simply to acknowledge this fact, however, is not enough. State education officials must seize the initiative. Local educators must accept the challenge. Teachers, teachers associations, and other special interest groups must get involved in the process. They can now utilize provisions of the Education Amendments of 1978 and other relevant legislation to make sure that they help make the decisions that will shape the way our country's schoolchildren are taught.

It is still too early to determine the full impact that the Rand study will have on federal education policy. It is already clear to me, however, that we must carefully measure our programs to ensure that they encourage teachers and other local education officials to become actively involved.

In all of this we must keep in mind the ultimate goal of all education policies, federal, state, and local: to increase the quality of educational services and to maximize the educational achievement of the nation's schoolchildren. □

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By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

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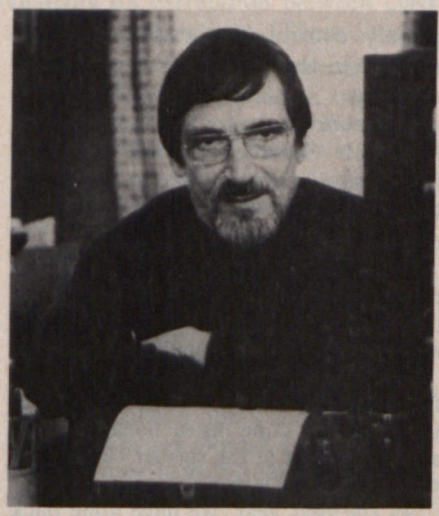

Alvin Tresselt was Vice President and Executive Editor of Parents' Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. His 53 books for young readers have sold over two million copies.

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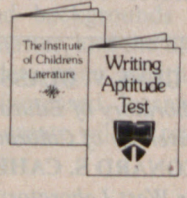

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CLASS SIZE AND LEARNING

—new interpretation of the research literature

Class size continues to be an important, sometimes an emotional, issue for educators. In the November 1978 issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*, NEA President John Ryor was quoted as saying that wages and class size were primary strike issues this year.

For decades, teachers, administrators, and educational researchers have been at odds about whether pupils in fact learn more in smaller classes. Teachers have generally believed with deep conviction that smaller classes are better for learning. A few researchers have argued that small classes are not better, or at least that empirical studies do not show that they are better.

An atmosphere of distrust has hung over the controversy. Researchers have suspected privately that the teachers' position on the question has been self-serving. Teachers have thought that researchers do not pay attention to the variables in teaching that are important.

Researchers have produced dozens of studies on the relationship between class size and achievement. Scholars have compiled and reviewed the literature repeatedly. Some reviews, such as one done in Australia in 1974,[1] fell with a thud: "There does not appear to be one optimum class size. The size depends on the particular teacher, the particular aims, the particular set of students, and the particular time." The lengthy report of Ryan and Greenfield[2] supports this conclusion and goes on to state that class size research has suffered because it has failed to adequately control the most important variable in the studies—the quality of teaching.

A recent study by the Educational Research Service[3] (which received front page coverage in the July 30, 1978, edition of the *New York Times*), ended with bad news for teachers:

> Existing research findings do not support the contention that smaller classes will of themselves result in greater academic achievement gains for pupils.
>
> Few if any pupil benefits can be expected from reducing class size if teachers continue to use the same instructional methods and procedures in the smaller classes that they used in the larger classes.

In the past year, we have gone back to the literature on class size and achievement with improved methods of integrating the results of many different studies. This investigation has produced new and exciting findings from old data.

A four months' literature search turned up nearly 80 studies of the relationship between class size and pupil achievement; these studies dated back as far as 1900 and involved more than 900,000 pupils. The studies had been published in well-known academic journals, out-of-the-way magazines, or, in a few cases, not at all; many had been conducted for doctoral dissertations.

We collected about half again as many studies as any previous reviewers had. We also included studies (less than a dozen) of the effects of tutoring in very small groups of one, two, or a few pupils. For our purpose, class size was defined as the number of pupils being taught by a single teacher.

Embedded in these studies were nearly 1,000 comparisons of the achievement of pupils in larger and smaller classes. A study would be reporting 12 comparisons in our terms, for example, if it compared the scores of classes of 15, 20, and 25 pupils on four subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test.

The studies presented us with an "apples-oranges" problem: They expressed their results on a variety of scales—grade equivalents, percentile rankings, etc.—that were not comparable. Consequently, we had to reduce the nearly 1,000 comparisons to points we call *achievement advantages* on a common statistical scale, the *z score* scale.[4]

Once we had converted all the comparisons to achievement advantage statistics, we could convert them once again to a scale that would have more meaning to readers of our study. For example, in this article, all comparisons have been expressed in terms of percentile rankings and grade equivalents.

In developing this method of comparing results of studies that had been conducted in different circumstances, we were trying to capitalize on the full power of modern statistical methods to arrange information and discern its meaning. In spite of the shortcomings of the method, it seems immeasurably superior to the narrative style that

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Class Size	Average Percentile Ranks in Achievement	Average Growth in One School Year (Grade Equivalent Units)
40	50th	1.00 yr.
30	52nd	1.07 yr.
25	53rd	1.10 yr.
20	55th	1.15 yr.
15	58th	1.24 yr.
10	65th	1.45 yr.
5	74th	1.72 yr.

Table 1. Relationship between selected class sizes and achievement, expressed in percentile ranks and grade equivalent units.

characterized previous reviews of research on class size and achievement.

When we tallied and analyzed the results of the hundreds of comparisons in the 80 studies, we found that 60 percent of them favored small classes. But many of the comparisons were between classes of about 25 pupils and classes of about 35. We had to take proper account of the relationship of the size of the smaller class's achievement advantage to the actual numbers of pupils in the smaller and larger classes. When we did so and also brought to bear on the problem sophisticated methods of data analysis not available to previous reviewers, a more complete picture (shown in Figure 1) emerged of the relationship between class size and achievement.

The aggregated findings shown in Figure 1 can be expressed in words in several ways. Imagine that a typical pupil in a typical class of 40 scores at the 50th percentile (i.e., the median) of an achievement test. The same pupil, taught in a group of 20, would have scored at the 55th percentile; in a group of 15, at the 58th percentile; in a group of 10, at the 65th percentile; and in a group of 5, at the 74th percentile. A pupil in a group of 40, then, would score 24 percentile ranks higher if taught in a group of 5 pupils.

Let's take an additional example. A fifth-grade pupil in a class of 40 might be expected, on the average, to gain 10 grade-equivalent months in a school year on a standardized achievement test. The average pupil in a class of 10 would be expected to gain 14.5 months, and the average pupil in a class of 5 would be expected to gain more than 17 grade-equivalent months. These and other relationships are summarized in Table 1.

After we had drawn the comparisons in percentile ranks and grade equivalents, we sorted these data into various subcategories, such as subject matter tested, pupil level, and date of study. We found that a relationship between class size and achievement was slightly stronger in secondary school than in elementary school. The relationships seemed nearly the same for reading, mathematics, and language.

Through this process, we discovered why earlier reviewers had reached the conclusion that no relationship between class size and achievement existed. The strength of the relationship varied greatly depending on when the research was conducted and how well it was designed.

Research done before 1940 shows virtually no correlation between class size and achievement. These studies were less well designed than those done later, and relatively few of them dealt with classes of fewer than 15. Furthermore, researchers who met our standards for experimental control by equating the pupils in the larger and smaller classes before instruction found a strong relationship between class size and achievement; those who did not meet our standards failed to find the relationship. In fact, Figure 1 is based on the nearly 100 controlled comparisons (from the studies with the best research designs) of achievement in larger and smaller classes.

Our conclusion is that average pupil achievement increases as class size decreases. The typical achievement of pupils in instructional groups of 15 and fewer is several percentile ranks above that of pupils in classes of 25 and 30. This newly documented relationship between class size and achievement contradicts previously published reviews of research, whose authors maintained that reducing class size would not result in greater achievement.

We found, too, that for every pupil by which class size is reduced below 20, the class's average achievement improves substantially more than for each pupil by which class size is reduced between 30 and 20.

Although we can expect that on the average, reducing class size will increase pupil achievement, this improvement will not necessarily result in every case. Instances of substantially larger classes' outperforming smaller classes have been recorded, although they are, of course, less common than the converse finding. Researchers must take account of what actually occurs in smaller classes: the instructional procedures used, the beliefs and capabilities of teachers, the demonstrated abilities and backgrounds of pupils, the subject matter, and the like. These ultimately determine whether the potential for increased learning that smaller classes create will be realized.

The conclusions reported here have many important implications for education. They support the widely held belief that students in smaller classes achieve more. Previously published reviews have not supported this commonsense relationship. The statistical

---

The research reported in this landmark study is of great significance to teachers. Many policymakers and other researchers, using less sophisticated methodologies, are claiming that class size is relatively unimportant to pupil growth. That argument can now be put to rest. This research demonstrates that smaller classes do have a positive relationship to student achievement.

The authors' intention to do further research on smaller classes is encouraging. Questions about the process of learning, teacher morale, student activities, and new instructional techniques in smaller classes are very important. In this study, the authors do deal with those factors but limit themselves to analyzing scores from achievement tests. That narrow measure is, of course, only one of several possible indications of students' growth.

The authors find only small differences in achievement between classes of 20 and 40 pupils, while classes that contain fewer than 20 students differ greatly from larger classes. It would be exceedingly unfortunate, however, if school boards were to use these data to argue, "Since we cannot afford to get classes below 20, they might as well be at 40." This would be a simplistic answer to a complex question that affects, through the schools, the whole society. Such public leaders, to act responsibly, should help their communities understand that quality of schooling is measured in many ways. Small classes produce superior results on all dimensions. Furthermore, as all teachers know, the small differences in achievement may be very important to the pupils involved.

It is important that policy makers, such as legislators and school board members, and school administrators be made aware of the findings reported in this article. Association members can get single reprints free by writing to the NEA-IPD Information Center, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. We encourage teachers to share this information with those who make the final decisions about class size.

—**Robert McClure,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

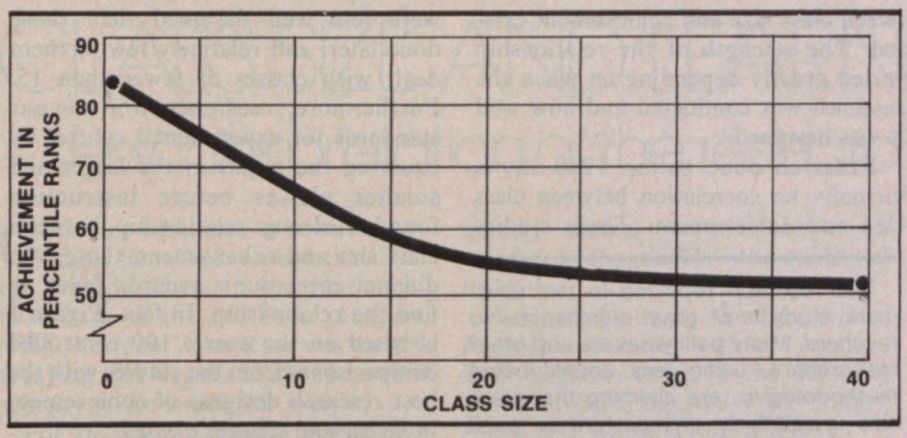

Figure 1. Relationship between achievement and class size (data integrated across approximately 100 comparisons from studies exercising good experimental control).

confirmation presented here requires school people to find answers to many questions of teaching practice and educational policy.

It is impossible to consider class size without considering finances. One major implication of our findings is that increasing class size just to save money can cause pupils to learn less. On the other hand, achievement appears to increase dramatically only when class size drops below 20. Giving all teachers classes of 15 for the full school day would be very expensive.

School districts should consider several alternatives. Some have attempted to reduce the number of pupils per teaching adult for at least part of the day by employing reading specialists, for example, or additional teachers for the periods when reading and mathematics are taught. Many schools use paraprofessionals to help the professional teacher. By assigning noninstructional duties to aides, they can free teachers to provide professional attention to individual pupils.

Scheduling and grouping within the classroom are other ways to reduce instructional group size. Some schools use a staggered reading schedule: part of the class comes early for a reading period and other students stay late. Thus students spend at least part of their time in small-class conditions.

School people might also learn to use small-class instruction, if not consistently, then at least where there may be the greatest need or greatest benefit. Small classes have often been used for remedial instruction programs, whose students need more individual attention. Small classes may also be most justifiable in the primary grades, to get more students off to a good start.

In the end, however, any weighing of outcomes against costs becomes a question of values. The data presented here show a clear relationship between reduced class size and increased achievement. What value does the school place on a particular magnitude of improved achievement?

School people should also consider other possible outcomes of reducing class size and the value they place on these. Class size may be related to such factors as teacher satisfaction, opportunity for individualized instruction, opportunity for peer teaching and discussion among students, opportunity for enriching the curriculum, a lower rate of student failure, and the like. We are now doing a statistical review of studies of class size in relation to such outcomes. Many people value such outcomes in their own right, regardless of any relationship to achievement in basic skills.

Reducing class size promises to increase learning by enabling school people to improve or intensify the instructional program. We need to study how instruction can be changed when class size is reduced. We need to consider what help teachers will need to take advantage of the opportunity that smaller classes afford.

This article summarizes some of the findings of the first phase of the Class Size and Instruction Project as reported in *Meta-Analysis of Research on the Relationship of Class Size and Achievement* by Gene V. Glass and Mary Lee Smith. (The references at the end of the article provide more information about the report.) The Project is funded by the National Institute of Education and is based at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. Researchers on the project plan to study the teaching-learning process in elementary school through a collaborative team of teachers and teacher educators. During the coming years, the project will undertake the following activities:

- Further analyses, this time of studies of the relationship between class size and teacher morale, pupil attitudes, and classroom process.
- An investigation of how schools presently reduce pupil-teacher ratios by employing aides, grouping, and other means.
- A study of what happens when class size is reduced experimentally and teachers are given support to take advantage of this opportunity. Teachers and researchers, using quantitative and descriptive techniques, will describe changes in the process of instruction that occur when class size is reduced.

We hope that the report of findings presented here will encourage future research on how the quality of schooling can be improved. □

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Glass, G. V., and Smith, M. L. *Meta-Analysis of Research on the Relationship of Class Size and Achievement.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1979. Individual copies of this study may be obtained for $5.50 (with delivery by fourth class mail) or $7 (with delivery by first class mail) from—Order Dept., Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1855 Folsom St., San Francisco, CA 94103.

Dorothy Heathcote—

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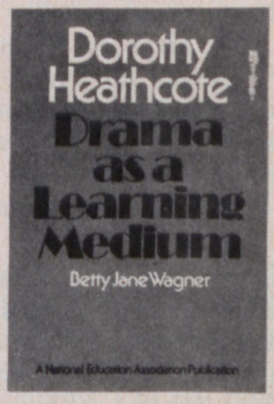

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SPECIAL FEATURE
ON SUMMERTIME ACTIVITIES

CHINA—Marco Polo Was Right

"Warmly welcome American Friends" read the chalked sign that greeted us at the entrance to the silk factory—and the agricultural commune, the school for the blind, or wherever our guides took us. And wherever we went, a cheerful "Ni hao!" was the familiar refrain.

The citizens of the People's Republic of China were delighted to see us and eager to show what they have achieved in the past three decades. We, the first group of NEA members (50 educators) from the United States to travel here, were extremely pleased to see for ourselves what had been hidden for so long. NEA Special Services, which sponsored our tour last year, had made splendid arrangements for a kaleidoscopic variety of sights and experiences. [For information about other NEA tours and special services, see the NEA advertisement in this issue.]

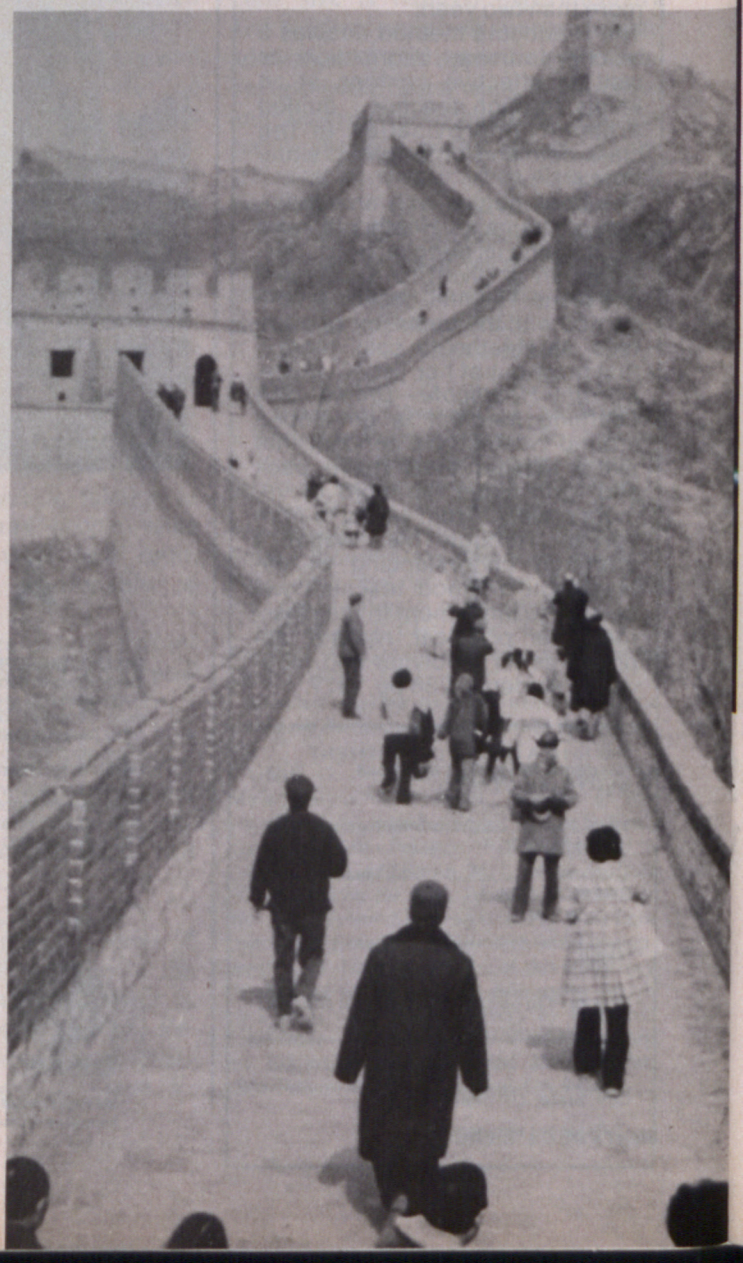
Marco Polo was right: the impressions of such a vast country (10.8 million people in Shanghai alone) leave travelers benumbed and mistrustful of their own perceptions. Every area we touched was only a small part of a total, unfathomable experience.

Of great impact were the historical places built up through centuries of a living culture. In Peking, the vastness of T'ien An Men Square, bounded by monumental buildings, is a magnificent use of space. Along the south side is the massive marble tomb of Party Chairman Mao Tse-Tung who died in 1976; on the west, the Great Hall of the People.

On the north side of the square, surrounded by walls and a moat, is the red-roofed Forbidden City of the Emperors, which took five centuries to build. The palace, renamed the Palace Museum, is now open to the public. Inside, guided through an intricate maze of courtyards, gardens, and treasure houses, we admired the delicate carving and polychromatic tile walls, the recurring pairs of huge gold imperial lions.

The treasure houses—unheated, uncooled, unhumidified—were crammed with priceless art objects and antiquities. The famed bronze Peking horse that was on display under guard in the United States last year might have passed unnoticed if we had not been looking for it.

In a more southern part of Peking is the blue-roofed Temple of Heaven, actually a complex of three temples—the Temple of Annual Prayer, the Temple of the God of the Universe, and the Altar of Heav-



By MARJORY PEASE SHARP
English Teacher, Pittsburg (Kansas) Senior High School; President, Kansas National Education Association, 1977-79.

en—all interwoven.

Stand in the middle of the perfect-circle altar, the legend suggests, and whisper a deep personal wish. You will experience something you do not expect and will never feel again.

I obeyed the legend. A moment later, a young Chinese scholar hurried up to me and repeated in perfect English my whispered wish: "Peace to all." The hundreds of blue-coated Chinese around us applauded.

A few miles from Peking, we spent some pleasant hours in a huge complex that was formerly the imperial Summer Palace. French and British troops burned the Palace in 1860, but the formidable Dowager Empress Tzu Hsi rapidly rebuilt it. Here pavilions, temples, and galleries cluster along the north side of a large lake. The "longest covered walkway" (701 meters) follows part of the shore. Walking through it, we craned our necks to see the beamed ceilings and eaves, which are beautifully gilded and painted with romantic scenes.

In a part of the palace, we ate a scrumptious 10-course meal—our usual style of lunch and dinner. Afterwards, we boarded a lacquered barge to cross the lake. The barge next to it, elaborately carved and decorated, was a two-story marble structure built at the water's edge by command of the Empress.

In Hangchow, we admired the many beauties of West Lake. This famous garden park is noted for its gorgeous flowers, schools of huge goldfish, and teahouses built on stilts in the water. We walked on bridges with nine right-angle corners that keep devils from crossing, and on the 600-year-old human-made island near the center of the lake. And all the while, we were thinking of the poet Li Po, who lived in Hangchow 300 years before the island was built.

In Nanking, we returned to our own century, climbing the 393 steps to the mountainside tomb of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who founded the Republic of China in 1911. The tomb is a pleasant sight, with its gates and blue tile roof. We remained uneasy there, however. The deep intermittent blasting we had heard throughout our climb was preparation for the building of air-raid shelters.

Every night at home, we had walked miles to get into condition for this trip. We could hardly wait, then, to climb the Great Wall after walking 20 minutes from the train station at Badaling. (We were the first passengers on the first tourist train over those tracks.)

Many centuries of history haunted us as we trudged over a few of the 2,000 miles of carefully fitted stone. We remembered with awe that this line of masonry was the only landmark observed by the astronauts from outer space. And we were startled to hear, throughout our walk, the chattering of machine guns on maneuvers.

On many days, we put aside the China of the past to look at the contemporary scene. We went through silk factories, with their miles of brilliantly dyed thread, and admired exquisitely designed brocade rolling off the looms. At an arts and crafts factory, we watched workers weld minuscule pieces of metal on to brass vases before applying a porcelain mixture in several delicate colors to produce cloisonné. We observed a man who had been carving the same piece of deep green jade for more than three years.

We also visited the Evergreen Agricultural Commune that provides the Peking area with produce. Through the sharp northern winter, the great city is supplied from kilometer after kilometer of greenhouses handmade from brick, bamboo, and plastic. The commune uses human fertilizer almost exclusively, but the only odor we found was clean and earthy.

As teachers, our group naturally had a particular interest in the educational system. At many of the agricultural or factory communes that we visited, we went into a nursery or school.

Some of these institutions care for children from six weeks of age through the upper middle school, which is roughly equivalent to our high school. In the nursery schools, the ratio of one worker per child means each child receives special attention. We did not hear one child cry.

Wherever we went, we found eager learners. As we stepped into an English class, dozens of third graders greeted us in unison: "Wel-come-A-mer-icans. Wel-come-A-mer-icans." Crowded into the classroom, we stood listening to what the children had been learning: "How do you do?" "How are you?" "I am fine." "What month is this?" "January, February, March. . . ."

At a school for the blind, we found students studying human anatomy and the taxonomy of the oil-producing rape plant; learning to make fine paper cuttings; or exercising in unison.

We spent some time in a Children's Palace, where the talented students who pass the entrance examinations develop skills in such fields as dance, art, instrumental music, science, and electronics. Most of the creative efforts we saw had themes of social or economic accomplishments. In one ballet performance, a 12-year-old leaped for joy when he decided not to play on the way to school but to get to class promptly and learn to serve society.

During our visit to Nanking Teachers' College, we had a chance to talk with some students. When I asked one English major why he was studying our

language, he promptly replied, "To go into tourism."

What novelists was he studying?

"Hemingway, Jack London, Dreiser, and Shakespeare."

He volunteered that he had just read *The Old Man and the Sea* and liked it "because it shows how the decadent West does not take care of its old people."

He enjoyed creative writing, he said, because of the "exciting subjects about which we can write." His latest essay was "How Working in Industry Can Improve Intellectual Thinking."

We did not return from China draped in magnificent silks and bearing rich jewels and spices, as Marco Polo did. I did buy an inexpensive *arhu* (a classical two-stringed instrument) and a bamboo flute: my students would enjoy learning to play them. We also purchased silks, lacquerware, jade, carved buffalo bone, acupuncture needles, and dolls marked with acupuncture points—whatever would amaze our friends at home.

The experiences we can recount also are amazing. We recall, for instance, eating such delicacies as shark-fin soup, one-hundred-year-old eggs, an elegant soup made with mandarin orange and lotus seed, bean curd in every form, and sweet and sour just about anything.

We reexamine many facets of life in a country just now opening up again to visitors, where natives and tourists are objects of mutual curiosity.

We remember thousands of workers laboring over every inch of cultivated land; women and men in a steel factory pouring white-hot molten metal down through open troughs in the earth; city workers sweeping up every crumb of dirt from the street to prepare for communal exercises at dawn.

Even now, the scent of jasmine tea in the lidded cup I found in a Nanking antique store brings back the voice of our host at an agricultural commune; "Warmly welcome American friends. We have accomplished much since the great Chairman Mao brought us enlightenment. After the devastating effect of the Gang of Four, we have put another 100 thousand hectares under cultivation. . . ."

And as I deposit savings towards the next trip to China, I recall a late-night conversation (partly by sign language) in a corner gathering place.

"When will you come back to China?"

"When I've saved enough capital and the interest it earns. I'm a capitalist, you know—I like my money to work for me."

The answer was quick: "That's not capitalism; that's just good business."

Yes, Marco Polo, you're still right, even in the twentieth century. □

SUMMERTIME ACTIVITIES
(continued)

"I Studied the Monkeys in Kathmandu"

It's 4:30 a.m., and the steady monsoon downpour that has fallen all night has slackened. In the make-shift Earthwatch office at the Kathmandu Guesthouse, I plug in the water-purifying apparatus and retrieve the mangoes from their iodine bath. Breakfast. The plant-drying press comes off the top of the chest, which serves as both table and pest-free container for our food supplies: bread, yak cheese, and our staple—American peanut butter.

A co-worker stumbles in, with rain parka and binoculars. "Do you think they'll leave the sleeping area to feed in all this rain?" she asks, adding fresh data sheets to her clipboard.

"Unfortunately, yes," I reply. I don't relish the idea of standing in the rain watching monkeys any more than she does.

This is Headquarters, Earthwatch rhesus monkey observation team, July 1978, Kathmandu, Nepal. Eighteen of us arrived a week ago from separate parts of the U.S.A. We split into two teams to work with the two Johns Hopkins University primatologists on the primate study expedition. Jane Teas was observing peripheral male behavior at the site of the ancient Swayambunath temple. Bernadette Marriott was studying infant monkey nutrition in an abandoned royal garden, located near the Pashupatinath temple compound on the holy Bagmati River. I chose the nutrition study, feeling that my observation of six-to-10-year-old homo sapiens for many years would stand me in good stead watching baby monkeys.

At five in the morning, the city of Kathmandu, which has lain all night like a recumbent Buddha, is just beginning to stir. In the courtyard, we unlock our heavy Chinese one-speed bikes. Breathing the crystalline air off the great Himalaya, we turn into bougainvillea-lined avenues, then into the narrow ways of the suburbs.

We keep to the left, British-style. Terrified, I negotiate my way among cows, people, bicycle-rickshaws, chickens, and an occasional taxi or bus (no private

By J. PATRICIA FAUL
Third and Fourth Grade Teacher, Robert H. Down Elementary School, Pacific Grove, California.

cars here). The largest moving object has the right-of-way. Past rice paddies that mirror the sky, across the Bagmati, near the dying-house and human cremation pyres, we finally turn into Goshalla garden. The rain has stopped.

"Namaste (God go with you)," we nod to the ragged gardener who sleepily boils tea in the mud shelter at the gate. "Namaste," he replies, smiling and pulling on his hashish pipe. Probably he thinks these strange people must be crazy to watch so carefully the troublesome monkeys with whom he coexists. We lock our bikes and take divergent paths into the lush, 30-acre walled garden; our four-hour shift has begun. The rain-laden foliage, still dripping, hides not only our monkey troop but exotic birds and reptiles as well. A fragrance released by the moisture floats sensuously on the morning air. I pinch myself. Am I really here? Or is this some full-color *National Geographic* dream?

Some months earlier, in search of an offbeat vacation, I had stumbled on a notice for Earthwatch, a nonprofit organization that puts amateur volunteers in touch with research scientists who need help on their projects. When the catalog arrived, I found it full of rare opportunities for adventure in many countries of the world, including the United States. Would I document Stone Age pictographs in Kenya? Or trace the earliest inhabitants of Mallorca? Or document the native dances of a remote Greek village? I finally settled on the monkey watch because I had always wanted to see Nepal.

I applied and was accepted within a few weeks. Certain reading was recommended to provide advance knowledge of the country and the methodology of the study. There was also a list of things I would need to bring. Finally, the day for departure arrived and I took off for India, heading west by air from San Francisco.

In the airport at New Delhi, I recognized the Earthwatch logo on a piece of luggage and met three other members of the team, all young college students. Shortly thereafter, flying north, we looked down in wonder as we approached Kathmandu. The world below us was shining in chrome green—orderly rice paddies reflecting puffy white clouds like a series of mirrors, clusters of thatched houses, torrents of water running down from the Himalaya.

At Kathmandu airport, we piled into a dilapidated taxi and—too excited for words—stared out the window as it honked its way through the city. Hindu and Buddhist temples, gleaming in reds and gold; streets full of people and bicycles; open stalls where vendors sold glass bracelets, silks, and food cooked over low braziers—I had never seen a city quite like it, even in Africa. We finally turned into a muddy courtyard and found we had arrived at the Kathmandu Guesthouse, our home for the next three weeks.

"Oh, you're Monkey People?" smiled the young man at the desk. An Earthwatch staff member soon assigned us rooms. One of the college girls and I acquired the corner room on the third floor, coveted because of its view of the Great Himalaya. In fact, the lofty range remained completely hidden from us throughout our stay due to monsoon season cloud cover.

We had been told that the Guesthouse was a modest accommodation—which it was—but that it was fascinating in its location and clientele, and that was true, too. It had once been a small palace, but the

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only sign of grandeur that remained was a mirrored and chandeliered ballroom that opened off our bedroom. Our team sometimes met there in the evenings.

The 12 "Monkey People" took up most of the rooms, but the others were occupied by a steady stream of interesting travelers—truck drivers on the Kathmandu-Istanbul run, black-market jade dealers, young backpackers from all parts of the world. The communal bathrooms provided some unorthodox social interaction as we waited in line for a cold shower or washed out laundry in the sink. The 12 of us who were to work with Dr. Marriott remained at the hotel, while six others were housed near their study site on the edge of town.

The first night we met in the ballroom for our initial briefing. Our group included three other people who worked in education, a dentist and his wife, a physicist, a social worker, a science writer, and more college students, as well as an Earthwatch staff member on a busman's holiday. Drs. Marriott and Teas, or Bunny and Jane as they were soon called, quickly acquainted us with the purpose and methodology of their respective studies and described what was expected of us as volunteers. With heads reeling not only from jet lag but also from much new information, we all repaired to dinner at K.C.'s, a lively hangout nearby, for our first Nepalese food.

Later that night, my roommate and I nailed up our mosquito netting. The soft moonlight flooding in through a break in the clouds convinced us that our corner room was indeed a treasure, even though there was no glass in the windows and no furniture but the twin beds.

Since our work was to begin in earnest on Monday, we used Saturday to find the study sites and learn our way about the city. We visited Pashupatinath Stupa first. A stupa is a Buddhist shrine equivalent to a western church or cathedral. More Hindu than Buddhist in feeling, the two parts of Pashupatinath Stupa lie on either side of the Bagmati River, connected by a bridge. Huge numbers of people come there to worship every morning. And, when there is no hope of recovery, it is there that the dying are taken to the dying-house. When their time is near, they are carried to the edge of the river so that they may die with their feet in the holy water.

The shrine's grounds are alive with monkeys, who feed on the cracked rice and flower petals people leave there as offerings. Our monkey troop, however, lived a small distance away in Goshalla garden.

Swayambunath Stupa, one of the most ancient temples and the site of Dr. Teas' study of male monkeys, lies on the other side of town. It is a bell-shaped structure; on its face are painted huge eyes, which look knowingly across the valley. Buddha himself once climbed the 375 steps to its top. From here one looks down over the sprawling, low-rise clutter of Kathmandu in all its clutter of old and new.

Monkeys abound here, too, scavenging from temple offerings. At the foot of the shrine on that Saturday, a tented Tibetan folk opera was performing in a nonstop three-day celebration of the Dalai Lama's birthday. We shrieked with the rest of the crowd as the fierce, masked devil danced menacingly close.

That first full day ended in a culture shock that is etched forever on my memory. We had crossed a swiftly flowing river on a rickety suspension bridge—one of many we were to experience in this wildly beautiful land—and had come to the foot of Pig Alley, a street famous among drug-culture Americans in the late sixties.

Rounding a corner, we suddenly came upon a burning wooden heap with two young brown legs and an arm still sticking out of it—a funeral pyre. A lone attendant stood patiently, occasionally adding more fuel to the flames. This scene came to represent to me one of the most profound differences between Western and Eastern cultures, something for which no amount of reading had prepared me.

And now here I am in Goshalla, standing on an indistinct pathway, listening to the garden awaken, my eyes straining to find monkey forms in the low tree branches in their sleeping area. My colleague pads softly up behind me on the wet path. "They're down by the wall across the parkland." We hurry out of the garden and cross a grassy parkland to the wall on the road to Pashupatinath. The morning temple traffic provides handouts for the monkeys. A little cracked rice here, a little corn there.

Suddenly Gandalf, our alpha (dominant) male rhesus, mounts a raid on a melon vendor. Nepali epithets rend the air, and the monkey troop moves a short distance away. Shortly, the temple traffic subsides as the business of the day begins, and the monkeys retreat across the open parkland to the quiet, untouched sanctity of Goshalla. Their move is made quickly and with much care to avoid being run over. As they cross the road, we make the daily count. It stays steady at 76. The one last pregnant female has not delivered.

I find Kanta, a mother identifiable by a crooked tail tip, and her female infant, Kizzie, who is busily examining a leaf. They let me move quietly and slowly to within a few feet of them. Kanta looks at me as if to say, "You again?" The baby scampers to her and begins nursing.

It is amazing how used to us they have gotten in just a week. They have sensed that we are not there to hurt them. Though the Nepalese consider monkeys sacred, they also regard them as pests. Youngsters

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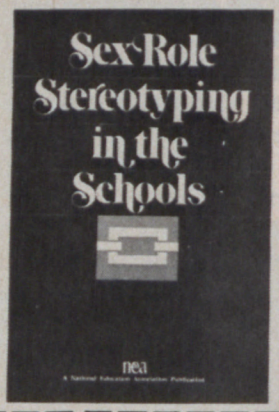

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chase them off with rocks, so the monkeys are extremely wary of them. I check my watch, adjust my binoculars, and begin recording data.

The object of this study is to find out what rhesus monkeys eat in the wild state. The rhesus is an experimental animal that is used extensively because its life systems more closely approximate human life systems than do those of any other animals. In captivity, however, in both laboratories and zoos, rhesus monkeys have been fed what people thought they should eat. Bernadette Marriott's idea is to learn what the monkeys eat when they have the choice.

The method of study is to observe a mother and infant extremely closely during 20-minute segments, recording specific behaviors every two minutes. Of primary importance are feeding behaviors. What are the monkeys eating? How much? We have to identify everything they ingest, matching it against previous observations. If the plant is strange, we collect specimens, press them, and send 100 grams (dried) back to Johns Hopkins for nutritional analysis. Rhesus monkeys are vegetarians, so we only have to concern ourselves with identifying plants.

My distinct contribution has emerged early. As a California gardening type surrounded by New Englanders, my identification of exotics-gone-native in Goshalla is relatively impressive. Wild ginger? Hibiscus? Forget-me-nots? All in my wild Carmel, California, garden!

Our shift done, we pedal back the five miles into town with the prospect of a free afternoon—free, that is, after the plant samples are properly identified and processed. Shall we have a curd-shake for lunch? Shop in New Road? Go bird-watching with Amulia, our Nepalese liaison person? Go swimming at the Yak and Yeti Hotel pool? Arrange our air tickets to Pokhara for next weekend's adventure into the Himalaya? We collapse for a nap, instead.

The expedition briefing had warned that the work schedule would be demanding, and it was. Aside from the demands of the long and harrowing bicycle ride out and back each day, it took a tremendous amount of energy just to stand quietly, watching and recording. There were many frustrations, too, like the times the monkey troop suddenly began a fast move to another area or a subject suddenly disappeared into a thicket. Back at headquarters, plowing through botany books to identify specimens took long hours when one had had no training. And there were the mosquitoes. Not to mention the leeches.

But there were also days like the one when I made the first observation on record of a mother rhesus dunking her baby in water to cool him off! And the day I was directed to drop everything and follow a mother who had had a stillbirth during the night. This was the first recorded minute-by-minute observation of a mourning mother. She held the dead baby in her hand for two days, which made locomotion difficult for her. She didn't eat. Her friends came quietly to her from time to time and simply sat beside her. Her sole expression was one of extreme mourning. Finally, one morning when she heard friends signal a corn donation near the temple, she dropped the corpse and ran off.

At the end of my stay, what a thrill it was to find that several heretofore uncollected plants were now in the archives of the Nepal National Herbarium, with *my* name on them as collector!

As the days went by, we found that all over Kathmandu people were aware of the "Monkey People." Some of us were invited to a press conference at the American Library, operated by the U.S. Information Service, where we were interviewed by the national press (equivalent to AP or UP) and *Rising Nepal*, Kathmandu's leading newspaper. The U.S. Ambassador even came out to Goshalla to observe our work. Everywhere our status as Earthwatch volunteers made opportunities available to us that no ordinary tourist could ever have had.

Then the day arrived, very quickly it seemed, when we gathered in the hotel garden to say good-bye. In a traditional Nepali farewell ceremony, we offered cracked rice and flower petals to the stone Buddha there. Garlanded with flower leis placed around our necks by Amulia, our foreheads smeared with vermillion rice paste, we sat cross-legged on the grass, tasting the egg and dried fish and drinking the rice wine that were offered us. We were all a little sad, for working together had produced bonds that do not readily dissolve. Though I was going on alone to explore Sri Lanka and Iran before meeting my husband in London for what my friends would term a "proper, civilized vacation," I was reluctant to board the plane, to leave that strange and lovely place.

Now, back home, as I watch the blue forget-me-nots bloom in my garden, I think back to Goshalla and to—of all things—the monkey family I came to know so well. And, living on the Pacific, I often look out across the water and think of my special city, Kathmandu.

What am I going to do next summer? Meet some of you, this time digging, I hope. Perhaps with Earthwatch on the Sacred Isles of Ecuador?

Each year teachers from throughout the United States combine travel to remote areas with in-service training and professional development by joining Earthwatch expeditions, which are cosponsored by the NEA International Institute. The fees for the expeditions are tax deductible because a participant's effort is a voluntary contribution to a tax-exempt institution.

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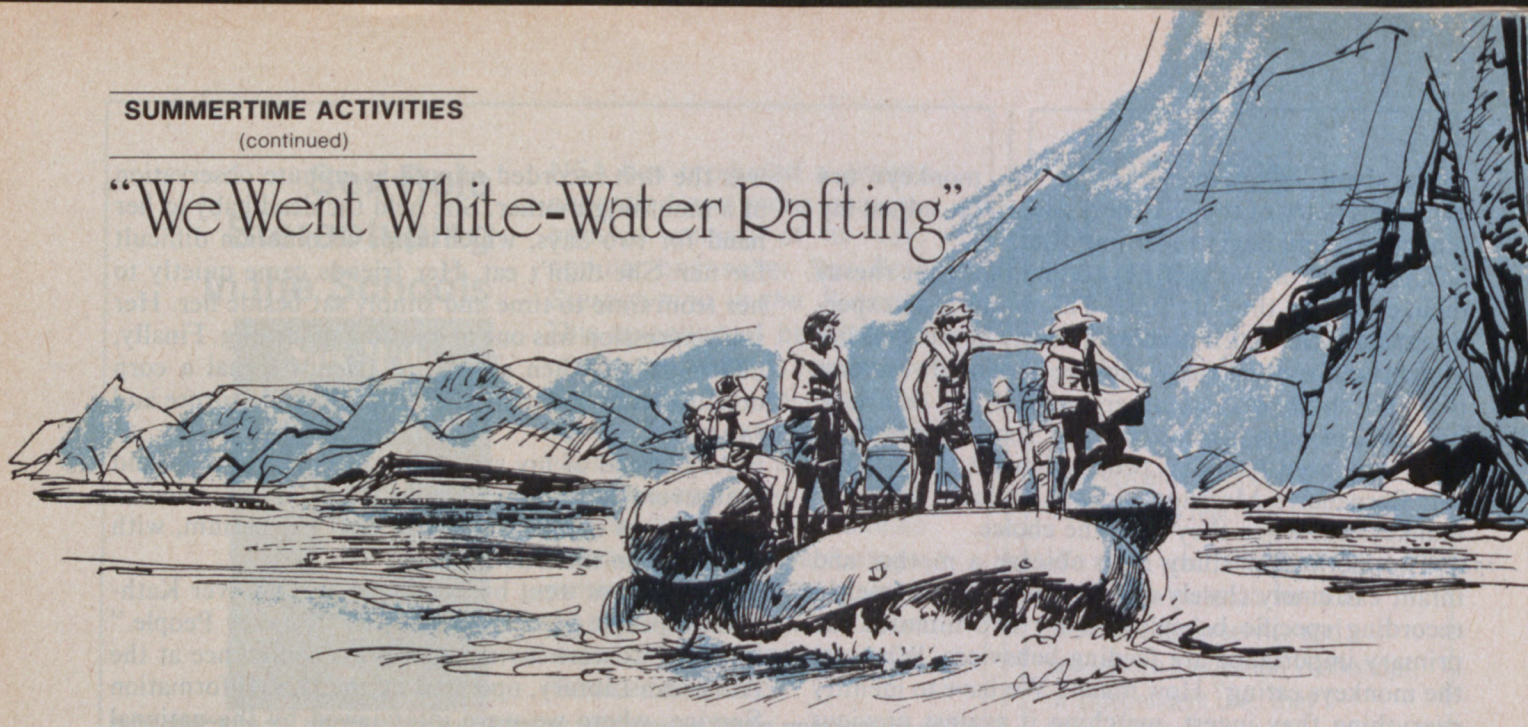
"We Went White-Water Rafting"



Take two reasonably intrepid teachers, eager for a complete, though temporary, change from nine-plus months in school. Whisk them to the northwest corner of Arizona, where they join 33 other adventure nuts. Set the group afloat on the Colorado River for six days, plunging along on rubber rafts with a score of rapids between them and their destination. Roast them in fierce desert heat. Put them to sleep each night under a velvet-black sky glittering with stars.

This—and more—was, in essence, the vacation that was ours last summer.

Our story may fire you with impatience to duplicate our experience, or it may convince you that drowsing on a beach towel by the pool is more to your taste.

First of all, introductions are in order. Smith and Jones are old friends—teachers from St. Louis, Missouri, and Louisville, Kentucky, respectively. One of us teaches second grade; the other is a reading specialist. We are still young enough and energetic enough to rise to the prospect of an offbeat, perhaps even dangerous experience. Last spring when we started thinking about excursions for our next vacation, a white-water trip on the Colorado River seemed to fill the bill completely.

When we told them of our plan, friends and family questioned our sanity. Comments such as "You're out of your mind," or "You must be kidding!" didn't deter us, though.

By BEVERLY F. JONES
Director of Reading, Jefferson County Public Schools, Louisville, Kentucky, and
BETTY H. SMITH
Elementary Teacher, Parkway School District, Chesterfield, Missouri.

The tour we chose started at the beginning of July. Tour members gathered at a motel in the little town of Page, Arizona. Here we had an important briefing before we actually became river rats next morning at nearby Lees Ferry Landing.

We were a disparate group, ranging in age from a 65-year-old grandmother to several teenagers accompanied by their parents. We had come from all over; one family had flown in from Switzerland to take part in the trip. Strangers to begin with, we all became friends in less than a week.

At the Landing, we strapped on life preservers (worn continuously while on the water) and climbed into our three "boats"—large rubber pontoon rafts, each equipped with an outboard motor. We sat on the bottom of the rafts, leaning against the pontoon sides and facing each other across mounds of gear packed in the middle. In addition to duffel bags, folding cots, water jugs, canned goods, and fresh food packed in dry ice, the rafts carried two extra motors apiece.

These last were needed to supply extra parts when a motor succumbed to the battering of the rapids—a not infrequent event. When a motor broke down, we would stop at the first calm spot in the river while one of the guides repaired the damage and the companion rafts circled nearby.

As we have already implied, plunging down the Colorado is not only exciting but occasionally life-threatening. For this reason, among others, very few people have made the trip. A check of records in 1949 revealed that at that point only 100 people had done so, and even today, access is limited to groups and individuals with permits from the federal government. In addition to big rafts like ours, kayaks, dories, and smaller rubber rafts equipped with oars also run the rapids.

The 20 major rapids are interspersed with countless

smaller ones. The danger varies according to physical conditions—primarily the water level, which influences the force of the current. We were glad that the level of the water was comparatively low at the time of our trip because, as far as we were concerned, there was already more than enough water to go around.

The River is not the only element of nature to take its toll on a trip like ours. The blazing sun and the hot winds in the Canyon threatened to mummify us all. Only the most frequent slathering of creams and oils kept us from dessication, even with the protection of broad-brimmed tie-on hats.

The waves that swept over us many times a day provided glorious relief. Despite the heat, the spring-fed river water is cold, and with each sluicing down we revived like wilted flowers. In the calmer reaches of the river, sneak attacks with pails full of the icy water thrown by our "friends" in the other boats cooled us off in a hurry.

In the hours when the River ran smoothly, we had time to enjoy what must be some of the most spectacular scenery in the world. The Canyon walls themselves are an endless source of fascination. To geologists, the Grand Canyon is like an open textbook. Exposed in multitudinous many-colored layers are rocks laid down for 2 billion years. To novices like us, the Canyon represented a demonstration of everything we had ever learned in our high school geology classes.

The contrast in hues, the blue sky, and the magnificent views make the Grand Canyon a photographer's paradise. Whenever the River gave us the chance, we snatched our cameras out of their protective plastic bags and snapped pictures like crazy. We thought we had brought a lot of film, but it was not enough to capture all the breathtaking scenes.

As evening fell, we would beach our rafts on the narrow strips of sand at the water's edge. Lining up like a bucket brigade, we unloaded cots, kitchen equipment, a portable toilet, and the individually numbered duffel bags that had been issued to us. Some of us would chip in to help the boat pilots with the cooking. After a day of wrestling with the Colorado and a lunch of sandwiches, oranges, and candy bars, we were tantalized by the odor of steak, barbecued chicken, ham, or beef stew cooking over driftwood fires. These main dishes were supplemented by vegetables, salad, and fruit, and the whole meal was washed down with quantities of lemonade or water to keep us from getting dehydrated.

Later on, when darkness had fallen, we gathered around the fire and toasted marshmallows. Overhead, the Milky Way spanned the Canyon. Constellations elsewhere obscured by pollution and city lights were plainly visible through the clear air.

Before long, drowsy and yawning, we would retire to our cots, ready to sleep under that star-spangled sky, in the embrace of the vaulting cliffs of the Grand Canyon.

During the trip, we gained in courage and in wisdom about the capricious vagaries of the River. None of our experiences, however, prepared us for the grand finale of our trip: a mad plunge over, through, under the long, steep drop of the notorious Lava Falls. The thunderous roar of the water grew louder as we approached the Falls. At last our guides pulled the motors up on the rafts to keep them from being smashed on huge rocks and jagged boulders. Furiously, the current swept us along. Tossed about and engulfed by mountainous waves, deafened by the coffee-colored water boiling and foaming over our heads, we clung desperately to ropes and did a lot of praying.

Suddenly it was over. The Lava Falls were behind us, and we were still all in one piece, though a bit bruised and quite shaky.

Our legs had a tendency to buckle as we left the raft for the last time and scrambled up a steep hill to a landing pad where a small helicopter flew in to ferry us out of the Canyon.

By this time, we should have been immune to panic. But no—our hearts leaped like captive bullfrogs when our pilot, whirling us up between the towering Canyon walls, guided the copter with his knees so he could roll a cigarette.

As we suggested earlier, this white-water trip is rough going. Certainly it is not for everyone. Participants need to be in good condition and strong enough to help load and unload the heavy gear. As soon as they climb aboard a raft and push off into the river, they have reached the point of no return.

Discomforts vary from the drying effects of hot sun and desert winds to bruises, saw-grass cuts, and the gritty feeling of sand—even in the lipstick. Privacy at the camp sites is minimal; we dressed behind whatever cover the scattered boulders and scrubby trees could afford. The problems associated with the availability of one portable toilet for 41 people require no comment.

In addition to these factors, it is worth mentioning that the trip cost about as much as a week at a luxury resort hotel. Despite the drawbacks, however, it was, for us, a wonderful trip, full of experiences and surroundings of heroic proportions. We had lived intimately with nature, and hour after hour, we had seen beauty that took our breath away. Perhaps most satisfying of all, we had pitted our endurance against considerable difficulties and emerged triumphant. □

"I Became a Student Again..."

Last summer I became a student again—but not in English, the subject I teach. Dance had been a hobby of mine for several years. I decided to take it more seriously. I enrolled in American University's graduate program in the performing arts.

Looking back now, I marvel that it had been 10 years since I'd taken a course out of my field. Since my junior year in college, I'd taken nothing but English and education courses. Although many of them posed a challenge and several caused tension (Statistics I, for example), none brought the frustration that my summer at American University did.

These frustrations, however, led to real learning, although not exactly the kind I expected. What I learned about dance turned out to be inconsequential in comparison to what I learned about being a student. The lessons were invaluable.

Do you remember what it was like to sit in a class and literally not understand what was being said? Do you remember being so ignorant that you could not ask a question? In one course I took this summer, Music for Dancers, I experienced both feelings. I'd sit for 15 to 20 minutes completely dumbfounded—accent on the *dumb*. At first, in desperation, I'd raise my hand and try to relieve my anxiety by pleading ignorance. Then, gradually, I discovered the path all frustrated students take: I gave up.

Suddenly, involuntarily, I saw myself standing in front of a group of seventh graders, asking whether they had any questions. No hands went up; obviously they all understood. Or if one of them did not understand but did not ask for help, that student clearly did not care about learning that point. Returning to the present, I thought to myself, "I care, I care, but I don't know what to ask."

How many students have sat in my classes over the years with that feeling gnawing away at their insides?

Do you remember what it was like not to be able to do something? To fail, no matter how hard you tried? Dance was a great humbler for this verbal person. Suddenly, my articulate nature was worth nothing. When asked to do an *enchâinment*—an *arabesque, pirouette,* and *changement de pied*—I could not. No matter how many times my instructor said those words and did those steps, I failed. One day my frustration was so great that I cried. I could not explain my problem because I did not then know what it was. Now I do.

First, I did not know what those fluid-sounding words meant. I was relying on visual cues, trying to imitate what I saw. However, I had a second problem: I had not developed my muscles sufficiently to execute the movements. No amount of "trying" would give me the vocabulary and muscles I lacked.

I thought back to the blank stare that I'd sometimes get when I'd ask a student to pick out a synonym, antonym, or homonym. Did the words all sound alike to that student? Did the student lack the cognitive background to use the words?

Does your mind ever wander? I was a highly motivated student: I'd spent $400 for my courses. Yet one day in an improvisation class, I actually daydreamed. The instructor took 20 minutes to give three directions, then said Begin. I could remember only one direction of the three. God forbid that one of my students should forget any of my directions.

Do you remember how it feels to do something perfectly one day, then try it and fail the next? One

By ALDEMA A. RIDGE
English Teacher, Harper's Choice Middle School, Columbia, Maryland.

Tuesday morning I mastered the spot turn. In fact, I was such an apt pupil that the instructor asked me to demonstrate my accomplishment to the class. Wednesday came, and the spot turn did not. I could not recapture the success of the day before.

I remembered a week of teaching introductory commas. By Wednesday, the students seemed to understand. Thursday I planned a quick review—and it took the entire 45 minutes.

What about a month later? I couldn't do a spot turn today without thorough review. Yet many times I have said to one of my English students, "What do you mean, you don't remember? We studied that last month. You got an A on the test."

In *A Handbook for Modern Educational Dance,* Valerie Preston says that "movement is a vast language, far greater than the language of words." This summer I made a small dent in the mysteries of that vast language and gained miles in understanding the world of words, my own language.

In dance we begin with a warm-up, then practice, and in the end, perform. In English we drill, practice, and write compositions. On the stage or on paper, the show does not materialize suddenly. It comes from carefully mapped-out steps. And even then, after careful planning and excellent instruction, some students will forget.

I've read a great deal about learning. But my frame of reference for what I read has always been English. I learn English easily; after all, I became an English teacher. How does that experience help me teach 90 percent of my students? It doesn't. Dance did. It showed me the other side. I've learned better how to teach because I've learned firsthand how to learn. □

SUMMERTIME ACTIVITIES
(continued)

"We Enjoyed an RV Summer"

I am the pilot. My wife, Barbara, is the copilot. In recreational vehicle (RV) jargon, that means we own and drive some type of camping rig. Ours combines a pickup truck with a 24-foot travel trailer that weighs in at six-and-a-half tons.

Since we first acquired a motor home in 1973, we have traveled more than 32,000 miles (51,200 kilometers) in the United States and Canada, and our lives have been much enriched in the process.

Both Barbara and I teach school 10 months a year. When school closes in mid-June, we load the trailer and point the nose of the pickup westward. We're heading for the starting-point of the annual rally held by the manufacturer of our travel trailer.

A word of explanation is needed here for those who are unfamiliar with the rallies held by manufacturers of recreational vehicles. They are enormous, eventful gatherings of RV owners—people who like to go places and do things without foregoing the comforts of home.

Our six-and-a-half weeks' trip one summer was fairly typical. We set out early one morning from our home in central Maryland. When we reached Breezewood, Pennsylvania, we stopped to fill our two fuel tanks before easing into the traffic of the Pennsylvania Turnpike. The pickup truck carries only 40 gallons (151 liters) of fuel and gets 8.5 miles to the gallon (3.6 kilometers per liter), so fuel management is an important part of every trip. Indeed, we carry an electronic calculator to help us in making computations.

As the miles roll by, a sense of relaxed well-being gradually fills the cockpit of the pickup. On the highway, long uneventful hours are interrupted only occasionally by moments of sheer terror. Every hour and a half, we pull off the highway and walk around outside or enjoy a cup of coffee in our mobile living room. We also take turns driving: fatigue and safety are not compatible.

The first leg of that summer's trip took us to the campus of the University of Notre Dame in South Bend, Indiana, where for five days we would be one of 1,000 families taking part in the international rally.

When we arrived at the rally site—acres of fields behind the Notre Dame Coliseum—we were quickly swept up in a current of excitement. Our vehicle became part of a vast sea of travel homes stretching in all directions.

We settled in hurriedly, eager to start prowling around in search of friends we had made during previous rallies. We carried with us a folder listing the

By MYRDON NEUMANN
Seventh and Eighth Grade Mechanical Drawing Teacher, North Potomac Middle School, Hagerstown, Maryland.

caravan number and owner of every vehicle attending the rally. By walking or biking around the camp area, we could locate our friends readily by the big numbers on the caravans.

Before long, we had found and greeted friends from Texas, Minnesota, Kansas, and Michigan, to mention just a few. We made plans to get together with various people for a confab, a cookout, or a horseshoe contest sometime in the next few days. Then we stopped by the rally headquaters to pick up one of the newspapers put out daily to keep everyone informed of scheduled activities, indoors and out.

For the five days we were in South Bend there was never time to be bored. Some activities took place on the spur of the moment. A few women, for example, might get together to exchange knowhow about knitting, crocheting, or macramé. Other events were more formal, like a display of handmade articles. This past summer for the first time, the rally's sponsors gave participants permission to sell their handiwork.

Young people, from toddlers to teenagers, kept busy with activities scheduled especially for them. One evening a pickup band of jazz musicians in the encampment got together and gave a concert.

Most days included a contest of some sort—a bake-off, a crazy hat contest, a beauty pageant. At a previous rally, Barbara had been a judge for the bake-off and was so stuffed from sampling the goodies that she could hardly eat for a week.

This time, I lucked out and was chosen as a judge for the beauty pageant, which involved performances by the talented contestants as well as appearances in evening gowns and bathing suits.

The rally was over before we knew it, and we were ready for the major part of our vacation—the Big Sky Caravan of 46 families traveling over the old routes of the West. Also sponsored by the RV manufacturer, the Caravan was scheduled to depart several days later from Mitchell, South Dakota.

At the appointed time, the 46 families assembled for a get-acquainted session and a briefing by the Caravan director and a husband/wife team who served as wagon masters for the trip.

The rules were kept to a minimum: Be ready to roll with full fuel tanks at 8 A.M.; maintain a distance of two football fields between units; and if a vehicle has had to drop out of the Caravan, pass it by: the caboose (maintenance team) will be along to render any needed assistance.

After the briefing, we returned to our camper, filled with excitement. We had a terrific itinerary: Before saying goodbye in Cheyenne, Wyoming, days later, we would visit the Black Hills of South Dakota; Diamond Guest Ranch in Chugwater, Wyoming; Colorado Springs, Durango, and Hoover Dam in Colorado; the Painted Desert, the Petrified Forest, and the Grand Canyon in Arizona; Las Vegas, Nevada; and Salt Lake City. (The itinerary was so rich, in fact, that I can describe only a small part of it in this article.)

The following morning at precisely eight o'clock, our CB radio crackled with a wagon master's crisp instructions: "Fasten your seat belts, ladies and gentlemen; start your engines; turn on your headlights; and away we go!"

Forty-six rigs rumbled westward on I-90 at an easy 50 miles (80 kilometers) per hour. We engaged the cruise control and let the miles roll by. After 90 minutes, it was time for coffee, a half-hour break. Parking 46 rigs off the highway takes a bit of planning, so the wagon masters had made arrangements for us to stop at shopping centers, school yards, or large rest areas.

We probably averaged 225 miles (360 kilometers) a day and always got to our campsite early enough to swim, shop, do laundry, or go sightseeing.

The first night out, we stopped in Wall, South Dakota, a small town several miles from the Badlands. We were all parked by five o'clock, so we had time to give the town the once-over, have dinner in our RV, and then tour the Badlands in the pickup as the sun was going down. This is an ideal time, because the setting sun lights up the ribboning of the rock formations to show a constantly changing spectrum of color.

The next three days we spent in the Black Hills of South Dakota, where there is much to see and do. The most impressive sight of all there is Mount Rushmore, with the gigantic portraits of Washington, Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt, and Lincoln carved out of its face.

Our favorite town in this region was Deadwood City. Here we prowled around Mt. Moriah Cemetery, where tombstones bear such evocative names as Wild Bill Hickock, Calamity Jane, Potato Creek Johnny, and Preacher Smith.

In Hill City, South Dakota, we climbed aboard an old-fashioned steam train and chugged our way to Oblivion on the Hill City Railroad. On another excursion into the territory we visited the Homestake Gold Mine, the largest operating gold mine in the Western Hemisphere. Here, we learned, a ton of ore produces only a third of an ounce of pure gold. And in Spearfish, South Dakota, we had the opportunity to see the Passion Play—a magnificent performance set in a vast open-air amphitheater.

Boots! Boots! Boots! Barbara and I must have tried on a hundred pairs of cowboy boots before we shelled out $40 to $50 apiece to buy some that fit our Eastern

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Mrs. Neumann, the author, and their RV.

feet. Obviously, cowboy boots are not made for walking. A cowboy always rides a horse.

We arrived at the Diamond Guest Ranch in Chugwater as honest-to-goodness dudes: neither of us had ever so much as climbed onto a horse. Undaunted, Barbara opted to go for a horseback ride as soon as we had settled in. I remained on the ground to photograph this daring act. After all, one of us had to stay whole to drive the rig.

Somewhat to my surprise, Barbara proved equal to the occasion. Upon her safe return, I quizzed her about what is involved in riding a horse. Her answers were so vague that I finally concluded that the horse makes all the decisions. The rider simply hangs on to the saddlehorn or to the horse's mane. The horse decides when to go, when to stop, where to go, and how fast to get there.

The Diamond Guest Ranch is a working horse ranch of 72,000 acres. We were intrigued to learn that the original owners had developed a new line of enormous high-stepping Clydesdales which were the forebears of the ones the Budweiser beer people use in their commercials.

After a three-day stay in Colorado Springs, we headed first south, then westward. Crossing a broad valley, we started up Wolfe Creek Pass, a grade so steep that our rig labored mightily and our heat gauge climbed alarmingly along with us. It seemed to take forever to crawl up that mountain—all 10,200 feet (3,060 meters) of it.

Eventually, we crested the pass, and started down the west side. I stayed in low gear, but our six-and-a-half tons was hell-bent to roll. The speedometer went past 30 miles (48 kilometers) an hour and kept on going. On the left, just beyond the guardrail, was a sheer drop that looked to be 5,000 feet (1,500 meters) straight down.

The first horseshoe curve came up fast. I eased on the trailer's electric brake system, and everything started to slow down gently. From that moment on, I felt less panicky—except when I looked down over the guardrail. Near the bottom of the mountain was a sign saying something about the number of truck drivers who had failed to negotiate the curve safely. I was too shook up to read the message coherently.

Another hair-raising jaunt in Colorado was the ascent to Mesa Verde, a precipitious climb of 7,000 feet (2,100 meters). It was worth it, though, to see the barren caves chiseled out of sheer cliffs, which had served as home for some ancient civilization. The area seems so dry and empty of life that we wondered how the cliff dwellers survived.

From the mountains, we traveled south into the Arizona desert through the Painted Desert and Petrified Forest to the Grand Canyon. This marvel of nature has to be seen to be believed; even then it is difficult to comprehend. Slides and photographs are unable to convey its vastness and unearthly beauty.

In the campground provided there for tourists, we saw an array of gear from pup tents to vans and recreational vehicles. From what we saw, we were confident that no one was more comfortable than we were. We have a refrigerator and freezer that run on propane gas. The same system heats plenty of hot water for bathing and washing dishes, while two holding tanks store waste water. The battery system provides energy for the stereo and TV.

Our trailer cost us about $8,000, but maintenance is minimal: the only things that wear out are tires and brakes. Then, too, it saves money on our vacations. In six-and-a-half weeks last summer, our expenses for fuel (925 gallons or 3,515 liters), trailer sites, and food for two totaled $1,015.

Back home before the school bells rang, Barbara and I were refreshed and ready to settle down for another year of teaching. Except for frequent weekend or holiday trips, our RV sits waiting like Cinderella's pumpkin coach. Come the end of June, though, and our summer cottage will be rolling merrily along past enchanting vistas of America. Our next trip? Following the July rally in Illinois, wouldn't it be delightful to follow the Mississippi down to New Orleans? Perhaps we'll meet some of you along the way. We'll be on the lookout for you. □

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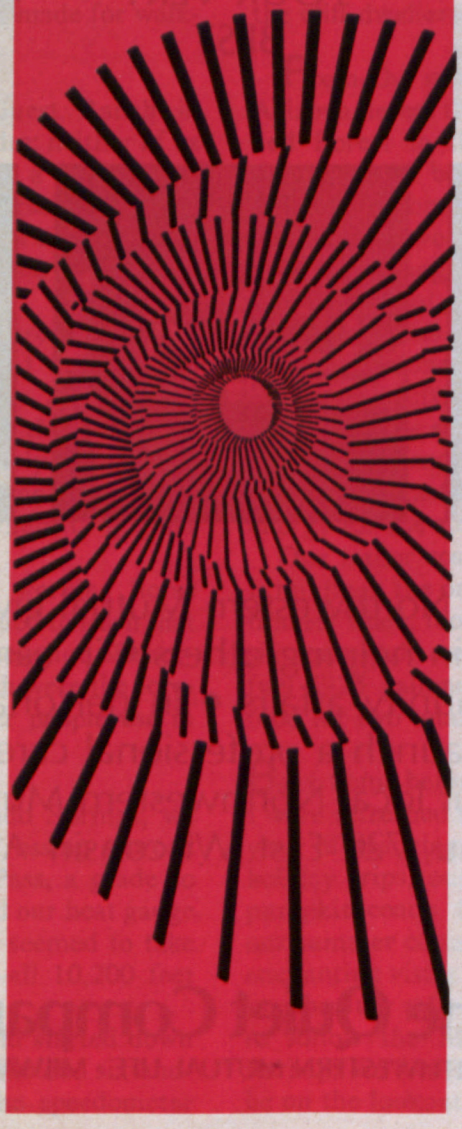
FORECAST FOR THE 80's



As the present decade draws to a close, it seems clear that history will preserve memories both of its distinctive traumas and of the turbulence it inherited from the 60's. This was the era that biophysicist John Platt summed up, with glittering insight, as "a crisis of crises."

Values collided during the 70's when our country's traditional Currier and Ives morality encountered the New Permissiveness. To add to the conflict, many U.S. Americans became uneasy about—and even began to mistrust—such hallowed institutions as their government, the schools, big business, the military, and law enforcement agencies. The Third World's demands for equity became increasingly insistent. At the same time, goods produced in the Third World for low wages—well designed, comparatively inexpensive clothing and electronic devices—threatened the incomes of U.S. production workers and all who depended on them.

The crisis in sources of energy became conspicuous when overseas oil producers temporarily cut off most of the 10 million barrels a day which the United States imports. The huge price increases which resulted aggravated the recession and further worsened unfavorable trade balances, thus greasing the downward skid of the dollar.

Depletion of our natural resources led to gloomy projections and to solemn talk of limits to growth. Most people, however, seemed to be too busy cashing in on the "good old bad old days" to ring in many good new changes. Currently, to our credit, many of us are endeavoring to reduce our per capita use of energy, which in 1974 was double that of the Federal Republic of Germany and triple that of Switzerland.

At least as portentous as these difficulties was the increasing balkanization of life in the United States, which fragmented old loyalties to home, church, school, and country. In addition, more workers became alienated from their jobs; consumers became more discontented with shoddy products; and because of inflation, people had increasing difficulty in maintaining their standards of living.

The schools continued to be hit by criticism from without and plagued by violence and vandalism from within. Enrollments tumbled by millions. In the instructional realm, however, alternative forms of schooling often sparkled with imagination. Bilingual education came into new prominence.

At best, all things considered, the 70's seem to have been a time of troubles. But what of the 80's? Specifically, what will the decade bring to education? Will the passage of time improve or restrict our educational options? Will the spirit of the times be a weariness of too much change in the schools? Or will it be a heightening of consciousness and sense of responsible service to our fellow humans sufficient to initiate an educational renaissance?

It is hazardous to skate on the thin ice of intuitive prediction. It is less dangerous, however, to present a forecast that is supported by the trends we are presently weaving into the fabric of our lives. Let us first look at selected trends which at present promise to make a difference in our lives, specifically in our schools. Then we will speculate about educational changes that are likely to occur if these trends continue.

Changes in the family. High on the list of present trends I would place changes in the structure and soundness of the family. Teachers cannot assume that all their students share the background of a two-parent family in which the mother works at home.

A diminution of home guidance for the young is one result of social change in families. Many "families" today might better be labeled *affinity groups*, for they are held together by the mutual needs of their members rather than the traditional blood ties. Guidance for children in these groups may be anybody's responsibility—or nobody's.

Childless women, at one time one-fifth of the women of 24 to 29, now number more than 50 percent of that group. Because women will be older when they begin to bear children, their children will probably have fewer siblings.

Another change is the increase in

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the employment of mothers. In 1960, only 20 percent of the mothers of children of 17 or younger were employed. In 1978, more than 50 percent of our mothers were working and a third of this group had children less than six years of age.

As a natural outcome of women's new working status, the proportion of three- and four-year-olds who attend preschool has tripled since 1964, from 10 percent to approximately 32 percent. One is led to ask, What is the future role of mothers, and what are the added responsibilities of fathers, in two-career families?

Changing parental attitudes. A second probable phenomenon of the 80's is surfacing in the form of unprecedented parental attitudes. The results of a recent Yankelovich poll suggest that nearly half of the parents of children of 12 or younger are unwilling to make sacrifices for their children; that many consider bearing children an option rather than a social responsibility; and that many feel that children have no obligation to them in the future. The poll results further suggest that the new breed of parents are permissive, seek to avoid perpetuating traditional sex roles, and have little desire to push their children academically. If these results are accurate measures of attitudinal changes, and if such changes are increasing, the impact on schooling and teachers' roles could be enormous.

Developments in the labor force. The U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) estimates that by 1990 the U.S. labor force will expand by 15 percent. This development may or may not be desirable, depending upon whether unemployment and underemployment are a problem at the time and whether there is an increase in *misemployment*—people's being hired to do work for which they lack interest or aptitude or both.

Four facts underscore the complexity of labor force problems:

- The number of persons with college degrees is increasing more rapidly than the professional-administrative positions to which half of them aspire.
- Blacks are twice as likely as Whites to be unemployed.
- The rate of unemployment for teenagers is triple the national average (for Black teens in our ghettos the rate is at least 40 percent).
- Several million immigrants (two-thirds Hispanic) and many women have successfully entered the world of work.

All of these facts affect the kind of education we should be planning for the 80's.

Mobility: America's movable roots and ethnic changes. In the 10 years since *Today's Education* published "Forecast for the 70's," a massive migration of U.S. Americans has begun, from Snowbelt to Sunbelt. The Northeast and North Central states are the big losers in the switch to the sun; Pennsylvania alone has lost 400,000 residents in a recent 10-year interval.

The quest for ways to motivate youth to learn will increase in both scope and tempo.

An intriguing aspect of our recent migrations is that a growing number of Blacks have reversed the direction of their migration. Of several million Blacks who moved between 1970 and 1978, an estimated 100,000 moved southward.

Another phenomenon is the changing ethnic profile of America. As noted above, most immigrants have Hispanic backgrounds, and Hispanics seem fated to become our largest ethnic group during the 80's and to outnumber the Blacks appreciably during the 1990's.

The aging of America. The graying of America has already been the object of much comment. The long-range impact of aging on our society and on our educational system, however, has been less understood and appreciated in the 70's than it will be during the decade ahead.

At present, between 4,000 and 5,000 citizens turn 65 every day, entering what is now called the *young old* age cohort. And the number in the *frail old* group—those of 75 or more—is increasing steadily, too. Probable developments of interest include—

- A 50 percent increase in the number of frail old in the next 20 years.
- By 1999, a leap from the present 22 million to well over 30 million persons in the population who are 65 or older.
- A median age in the United States which, from 27.9 in 1970, approaches 40 within the next two decades.
- Changes in advertising, merchandising, political strategies, entertainment—and education—to reach older target audiences.
- Increased employment of sitters for aged parents.

A coming "baby boomlet"? Aging is not the only population trend. At the other end of the age spectrum is the possibility of an echo of the baby boom of the 1950's. Despite the drop in the U.S. birthrate, the number of women of childbearing age will climb from 20 million in the 60's to 34 million by 1985. As a result, the trend in school enrollments could change from ebb to flood.

This increase may be largely offset, however, by a decline in the average number of children per woman. We will simply have to wait and see whether the pupil population swells and whether a scarcity of teachers once again occurs.

Inflation, taxation, and threatened pensions. Trends which are difficult to assess, but which could be ominous for education in the 80's, depend on the course of inflation, taxation, and debt. If inflation is not sharply curbed, prices could increase by as much as 100 percent in the next 10 years. By the year 2000 the dollar could lose more than 90 percent of the purchasing power it had during the mid-60's.

Thus the parents of a child who is three years old today must save $1,660 annually at 5 percent interest to pay the cost of a four-year degree for the child at a state university. By the time the child reaches 18, the cost of tuition will have increased from $16,000 to

more than $42,000 even if the inflation rate averages no more than a conservative 6 percent each year.

Taxation, or rather voters' resistance to it, also bodes ill for many U.S. social agencies, such as our schools.

Local, state, and federal taxes were 67.8 percent higher in 1977 than in 1972. During the same five-year period, consumer prices went up 47 percent. In last year's federal budget, the biggest single expenditure—$170 billion—went not for current defense expenditures or education or interest on the national debt, but for payments to U.S. Americans who are retired, ill, or poor. This expenditure cannot be cut.

In the 1980's, an added challenge to groups such as the NEA may well be that of coping with threats to the value of pension plans, on which an increasing number of teachers rely. Such plans are decreasing in real value as inflation erodes them. Despite adjustments for inflation in Social Security benefits, a retired teacher on a $300 pension lost $115.91 in buying power between January 1973 and September 1978.

The 1969 forecast in *Today's Education* anticipated seven major changes and a number of minor developments on the basis of ideas proposed by professional students of the future. Because of the protean developments in our society, more than a dozen educationally relevant forecasts merit our attention as we look ahead to the 80's.

For one thing, early childhood education, which elbowed its way to the footlights in the 70's, should continue to star. Especially if more babies actually make their debut, or if inflationary pressures continue, the number of mothers of children aged five or younger who work outside their homes could increase even further. Already more than tripled in 12 years, as noted earlier, nursery level enrollments could extend to include at least half of our three-to-five-year-olds.

Despite notable opposition from some sources, prenatal intervention and the pursuit of alternatives to the natural course of conception and gestation will increase. Social disapproval of pregnant women who expose the unborn to alcohol and narcotics will provide only a part of this story in the coming decade. Genetic histories, prenatal physical examinations, and occasional surgery performed on the fetus in the uterus should begin to be more widely accepted as part of society's responsibilities to its young.

Conception outside of the mother's body has already been accomplished. Troubling questions remain, however, about whether experiments involving test-tube babies are to be continued. In any event, the very early months of life promise to become the object of more intensified study than at present. Doctors and scientists will probably make greater efforts to provide whatever therapy a fetus needs as life begins.

Day care is likely to include a greater emphasis on helping children develop. Purely custodial care merely clogs early education's arteries without carrying much enrichment to young learners. In the 80's, therefore, programs for young children are likely to focus more clearly on guiding human development.

Early childhood education should continue to star.

Prospects for the 80's look something less than cheerful for postsecondary education in the humanities and in the preparation of teachers. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics foresees a "surplus" of 2.7 million graduates with the B.A. by 1985, and a Mellon Foundation inquiry concluded that by 1990 there would be a "surplus" of 60,000 Ph.D. recipients in the humanities.

Judging by an in-depth study by David Clark and Egon Guba—a study whose conclusions include projections into the 80's—we can expect a continued decline in teacher education enrollments and in funding. At least temporarily, these researchers conclude, support for quality programs will deteriorate.

Their views were reinforced late in 1978, when the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* published by the Department of Labor reported a six-year drop-off of nearly 9 percent in teacher education enrollments. Business and engineering schools are likely to continue to graduate more students for at least several years, while fewer students will major in history and English.

Because of the needs of a postindustrial society, postsecondary education as a whole will not languish. Unless they take advantage of the opportunity to serve a new clientele, however, schools may lose even more of their one-time monopoly to other educational agencies. These include instructional programs directly sponsored by the federal government, training ventures sponsored by business and industry, and training in vocational skills with "transfer value" provided by the armed services.

Secondary schools and universities can attract the growing crowd of potential students among the adult and elderly by cutting red tape and modifying admissions requirements for those who seek to bring their knowledge up to date or to broaden or deepen it.

The spread in the age ranges of children, youth, and mature learners at the same grade level or in similar areas of study is likely to increase during the coming decade, thus adding to a demand for more teachers. This seems inevitable for several reasons. The holding power of the schools has been increasing steadily: more and more young people stay in school after their sixteenth birthday. The decline in scores on mass standardized tests and the pressures for "competency-based" diplomas seem to reflect the presence of a large number of slower-learning students in the educational continuum. These young people will take longer than others to finish their schooling. Especially as opposition to "social promotions" builds up, more and more pupils may spend at least 13 or 14 years rather than 12 in school.

The schools will therefore need more teachers. Furthermore, educational theory will probably continue to support the designing of instruction to give students continuous progress in

nongraded, personalized instructional blocks.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) will encourage the schools to initiate long-overdue educational practices designed to prevent problems for all children. More liberal policies on the age of students at admission, more careful grouping, individual educational plans (including greater heed to the needs of bilingual students), and greater understanding of and consideration for human differences will, perforce, begin to permeate more classrooms.

At the same time, however, considerable turmoil can be anticipated as PL 94-142 has an impact. This turmoil, already evident, can be expected to carry over into the early years of the coming decade. The way in which the severely handicapped are brought into the school will continue to pose dilemmas in regard to locating, placing, and safeguarding them; paying for their education; recruiting teachers competent to help them; and designing the mandatory written, individualized educational plans for as many as 8 million students who may eventually be classified as handicapped under the present broad federal definition.

Concepts of what constitutes a basic education will move along two diverse but compatible tracks. A decline in mass standardized test scores beginning in the middle school years, the parental concern reflected each year in opinion polls, and legislated requirements will accelerate trends toward achieving the "educational excellence" which became a slogan in the early 60's and helped start the curriculum reform movement of that era.

In addition, however, the problems of a threatened biosphere will require the teaching of new basics: the knowledge that will help the next generation work to restore greater equilibrium between humans and their overexploited environment.

The quest for ways to motivate youth to learn will increase in both scope and tempo. A need to improve students' motivation has occurred because of two developments. First, provisions for human welfare have reduced the threat of want which goaded an older generation to work. At the same time, many youth have begun to recognize that there isn't enough affluence to go around as human aspirations and numbers make ever-greater demands on the earth's finite and dwindling resources.

An important task of education in the home and at school, it would seem, thus becomes the creation of a self-image in U.S. students that is focused on the future. If learners have hope that they can fulfill satisfying personal and vocational prospects, they will seek to build skills and talents that make them useful to themselves and to society. Giving them this motivation won't be easy, but the importance of the task will certainly be more widely acknowledged in the next decade.

Space limitations preclude a complete assessment of the forces and trends which will create issues and sharpen educational problems during the 80's. However, the following probabilities clearly merit a place in an inventory of education's tomorrows.

- Action (direct experience) learning and service (community improvement) activities, urged by persons such as James Coleman and Alvin Toffler in the 70's, may bring new vitality and validity to schooling.
- Despite the limitations on the amount of money schools can spend on hardware, technology should become increasingly significant to education in the 80's. Look for the use of tiny integrated circuit modules (already available) for programming hand-held computers, sophisticated educational materials that can be coupled to home or school TV screens, and the first practical use of holography—projection of three-dimensional images in the classroom by means of laser beams.
- It is highly likely that teacher militancy will increase if inflation continues to threaten the profession's economic security. Jeopardized pension plans, in particular, will become an increasingly hot issue if the cost of living doubles between 1979 and 1989—and it will, if present trends continue.
- A substantial increase in federal participation in funding local school districts can be expected. State legislators will attempt to mollify voters in a "Proposition 13" mood by supporting more conservative taxation policies. Patently, the federal government will be under greater pressure to pay more of the costs of quality education as local resources diminish.

A superficial examination of trends based on a quick reading of books, magazines, and reports dealing with the future may lead one to infer that the 1980's will not be a happy decade for schooling in the United States. Such a conclusion, I think, is dangerous nonsense.

There are excellent reasons for looking to the 80's with confidence. For one thing, our profession has enormous human resources in the form of highly educated professionals with a great deal of intellectual wattage. Enrollments at the elementary school level may or may not begin to increase by the mid- and late 80's and recreate the market for large numbers of teachers. In any event, there remains an enormous opportunity to increase the quality of U.S. education.

Among many other things, the teaching profession has learned a great deal as it coped with the educational problems of the 70's. Educators are constantly seeking ways to eliminate the decline in test scores while striving to retain the schools' proud record of continually increasing their holding power. The value of alternative forms of schooling has been recognized; generally these forms have not been left outside of public education but have become a part of it. The importance of early childhood education also has begun to be recognized, and programs for young children have become more widespread.

In short, despite possible shoal waters ahead for the schools, the 80's can bring better times for both learners and teachers. Because of the increasing scope of their clientele, educators have a number of new opportunities. These include, for example, making education more "special" and personalized for all children—not just for the handicapped; endeavoring to meet the needs of mature and senior learners; and strengthening the concepts of genuine multiethnic and multilingual education in our pluralistic society. □

Author's note: I wish to express appreciation to three professional students of the future for their careful reading and thoughtful comments on this "forecast for the 80's." They are Roy Amara, Lester R. Brown, and Edward Cornish.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE WAKE OF PROPOSITION 13

The 1978 elections have come and gone. The voters have spoken and in many states left behind restraints on state and local fiscal activity. Their decisions, among other factors, indicate that the antigovernment, antitax sentiment that has been gaining adherents throughout the 1970's will continue.

During 1979 every state legislature will be in session at least once. Before the year's end legislators in many, if not most, states will probably have had an opportunity to vote their minds on proposals to reduce or slow the growth of state and local revenues and expenditures. How state legislatures deal with this issue will affect most state and local services, but none more severely than public school education.

The movement to contain the magnitude of state and local revenues and expenditures is taking two general directions: it seeks both to limit property taxes specifically and to limit aggregate state and local taxes or expenditures generally.

Schools depend on property taxes for a larger share of their support than do general local governments such as counties and municipalities. Independent school districts derive their local funds almost exclusively from the property tax; most have no access to other local taxes. Dependent school districts obtain their local funds from general-purpose local governments, which in turn are fiscally vulnerable to both prongs of the limitation movement.

A school system's other major source of revenue is its state government. Ceilings imposed on the growth or aggregate level of a state's own revenues or expenditures, however, restrict its capability to aid local entities.

The budgetary process itself bodes ill for the schools in fiscally austere times. When budget makers—state, county, or city—search for items they can reduce to accommodate some compelling new need or to absorb a revenue loss, their attention quite naturally drifts to the appropriation for public schools: typically, it contains more dollars than any other single item in the budget. A fraction of a percentage point shaved there would save enough to add points to other existing items or to initiate new services.

The property tax and the state are two sources of school support; the third is federal aid. Federal aid, however, provides on the average less than 9 cents of every public school dollar. Moreover, signals from both the White House and Capitol Hill afford little encouragement for those who would like to increase it at this time.

California's tax fiasco has been reported widely. It may be the most closely monitored fiscal experiment in our time, other than federal revenue sharing in its beginning years. We need not detail it here, beyond noting some features and raising some questions that can help us interpret developments in other states.

For one thing, California has no monopoly on high tax rates. The *1977 Census of Governments* found no city in California where the median effective rate (the rate actually collected) on single-family houses averaged 3 percent of sales value. In most, the median was nearer 2 than 3 percent.

The *Census* list of cities where effective rates are 4 percent and higher includes 14 in Massachusetts, 11 in New Jersey, and 5 in New York, but none in California. In 1977, average effective property tax rates for single-family homes with FHA-insured mortgages averaged 2.7 percent in California, but 3.5 percent in Massachusetts and 3.3 percent in New Jersey.

Judgment in California's situation necessarily has to be delayed until the state's capability to relieve the fiscal plight of its local entities by using its accumulated surplus runs its course. Whether this occurs by 1980 or later

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will depend in part on the behavior of the economy. It will depend also on whether legislators playing for the applause of their constituents and a governor performing for a national audience are willing to risk additional emasculation of the revenue-producing strength of their state's tax system. Additional reduction of the income tax and classification of taxable properties so they can be assessed at different rates reportedly are already receiving attention.

Local government services, including the schools, are surviving, but not without excruciating pain. Staffs have been reduced, vacancies left unfilled, salary increases voided, and building maintenance funds slashed.

Cash flow problems are challenging officials' ingenuity. Despite generous distributions out of the state's surplus and economies of the kind just listed, jurisdictions are finding it necessary to deplete working balances; to drain funds from special projects; to begin charging users for recreation, libraries, and inspections; and to increase fees and charges for water, sanitation, and building permits.

A striking impact of Proposition 13 on the public schools is the jump of the state's share in school funding from 38 percent to an estimated 65 percent. The rigid limits that remain on the capability of local entities to raise revenue suggest that the state's share can move only higher.

School finance reformers have long advocated an increase in the proportion of school revenue that comes from the state. They point with implied approval to Hawaii, which has one school district and minimal local financing. Centralized financing and the controls associated with it in a one-school-district state that has never known a different system and has an enrollment of 175,000 are one thing. However, a shift to centralization in a state with a thousand school districts and an enrollment well over 4 million is a different matter.

California's new financing pattern raises some hard questions. Can a centrally controlled system of vast size and embracing divergent economic, demographic, and cultural societies be reconciled with this country's traditional attachment to community control of school operations?

How will the state's enlarged fiscal role affect the issue of equalizing per-pupil support among a state's local districts, which was posed by the *Serrano v. Priest* family of cases? In formulating rules for the distribution of the increased state funds, California's legislature will presumably want to heed the mandates of its courts. Does this development then effectively dispose of the problem created by the

Courtesy William Sanderson/Willamette Week

"I think I'd like just a little less off the top."

wide disparities among local districts in the amount of taxable wealth behind each child?

What will the substantial increase in state support of schools portend for statewide teacher salary schedules or statewide negotiations?

California's new 1 percent tax-rate limit raises a different group of questions. The assessment rules that accompany the limit appear to impose different-sized tax bills on different owners of properties with the same market value. Tax assessments have been rolled back to their 1975-76 levels. They can be increased only 2 percent a year, regardless of how much market values increase, except on new construction or property that has a new owner. Properties bought in 1979, for example, will be assessed at this year's values; those bought in earlier years, at their 1975-76 values.

Assessments on properties of like market value will diverge more each year, depending on whether their ownership changes and on property values at the time it changes. Because business properties rarely change hands, their tax bills will tend to remain stationary while a growing share of the property tax load is shifted to other owners, notably homeowners and farmers. Among these, those who purchased most recently, notably the young and the newcomers, will bear a disproportionately high share of the burden.

Now, the 1 percent tax-rate limit applies to these differing assessed values of properties that have equal market values. Can the courts suffer such unequal tax treatment of like properties? Can they reconcile it with the rule of uniformity that heads "taxpayers' bill of rights"? The changes implied by these questions will be all the more jarring since they will be taking place in a state long applauded for the quality of its assessment system.

California's Proposition 13 did not start the movement to curb state and local fiscal magnitudes, but it certainly unleashed it. A larger proportion of voters were directly involved in making fiscal decisions in 1978 than at any time within memory. The electorate amended state constitutions, approved state statutory changes, and advised legislators to practice fiscal restraint. The opportunity to express themselves on fiscal limitations was available to voters in about 20 states and in selected communities in a number of others. Efforts to place fiscal questions on the ballot failed in at least five more states where sponsors of limitation measures were unable to collect the requisite number of signatures. Most of them say they failed only because they started late.

About half of the tax limitation measures on the November ballots originated in state legislatures and in bodies studying constitutional changes. The voters themselves originated the rest through initiative petitions. In some 20 states voters can bypass their legislature by petitioning that a specific question be placed on the ballot. The initiative petition need only be signed by a prescribed number of eligible voters. Initiative measures certified for the ballot and approved by the electorate are veto proof.

Oregon voters were offered two, and Michigan voters three, separate limitation proposals. The alternative proposals were presented to divert voters from more extreme, Proposition 13-type measures.

Voters acted on fiscal limitation proposals across the country, from California to Maine and from Washington to Florida. Most of the proposals, however, were concentrated in the western part of the country. There initiatives to make constitutional and statutory changes are most generally allowed.

Our tally for 1978 lists 16 states where voters had an opportunity to change fiscal provisions in constitutions. In five of these they said "no" to at least one such proposal.

In only three states did voters have the opportunity to express themselves on measures patterned on California's Proposition 13, which had been approved the preceding June. In two of these, Idaho and Nevada, they said "aye." Oregonians said "no."

In Nevada the initiative effected an amendment to the constitution, but constitutional amendments have to be approved in two separate elections. Nevada's voters will have an opportunity to reconsider their decision in 1980.

The measure that almost 60 percent of Idaho's voters approved last November is a statutory (not a constitutional) change. It therefore can be altered by legislation. Since some of its provisions are believed to be in conflict with the state constitution, the legislature and governor cannot escape reconsidering at least some of its details. This process has already begun.

Understandably, Idaho's political leaders are not disposed to espouse a drastic watering down of the new limitation, lest they be charged with disdaining the will of the electorate. Nonetheless, they have considerable latitude to draw the fangs of the measure.

Reportedly, possibilities already under discussion raise several important questions: Can the 1 percent tax rate be limited to residential and agricultural property? Does debt service on future bond issues fall within or outside the limitation? How should the schools, counties, and cities share the proceeds from the 1 percent property tax? Should these entities be allowed to use other taxes now denied them? Does the requirement that details of the measure can be set aside only by a two-thirds vote refer to two-thirds of registered voters or only of those actually voting?

Measures as stringent as Proposition 13 will not sweep the land.

Idaho, unlike California, does not have the breathing space afforded by a large state surplus. It does, however, have the opportunity to moderate the measure its voters passed. Moreover, the relative revenue loss caused by reducing the tax rate to 1 percent will be less devastating for Idaho. Idaho's present tax rates range from around 1.25 percent to 1.50 percent whereas California's ranged from around 2.25

percent to 2.50 percent.

Property tax reductions found favor in other states, but they are less stringent. Nebraska, for example, limited annual property tax increases to 7 percent. Massachusetts cleared the way for reducing the property taxes of homeowners by authorizing the classification of real property for the purpose of assessing different classes at different rates.

The technique of classification was rediscovered after the courts began to invalidate the practice of assessing the property of public utilities at a higher percentage of its actual value than farm or residential property.

Classification can legalize differentiation among property classes. Suppose the state's constitution or statutes require all taxable property to be uniformly assessed at 50 percent of current market value and the courts find this requirement to be violated because homes, farms, business and utility properties are each assessed at different rates. The problem has been met in some states by explicitly legalizing the differentiation. In our example, the constitution or statute proscribing the differentiation already in practice could be amended.

Any list of new tax measures should feature also the Headlee Amendment to the Michigan constitution. It freezes the state's aggregate revenue at its present percentage relationship to the people's aggregate personal income until changed by a majority of the qualified voters.

It has been estimated that Michigan's revenues for fiscal year 1979-80 may not exceed about 9.5 percent of personal income. Michigan voters chose also to limit growth in local tax revenue to the increase in the consumer price index.

Missouri's new constitutional amendment permits the legislature to mandate a reduction in property taxes when it increases state aid to counties or cities.

State legislatures are showing an increasing inclination to couple increases in state financial aid to local governments with mandates to reduce property taxes. Increased aid to schools has been so limited in recent years. An example is a current proposal in Virginia to authorize a 1 percent Northern Virginia regional sales tax for subway construction and other transportation purposes. This measure goes so far as to require each community to offset each dollar of sales tax revenue with a dollar of property tax reduction.

Some states approached the objective of limiting fiscal magnitudes from the spending side. This expedient is viewed as a frontal attack on the recent accelerated growth of state and local spending, faster than the growth of the economy.

Concern with the growth of governmental spending is presumably reinforced by the impact of the accelerated pace of inflation on revenues. As people's incomes rise, their income taxes tend to rise more than proportionately because they are catapulted into higher tax-rate brackets. When price increases are taken into account, their real income may not have increased at all. For this reason, indexation of income taxes is beginning to find support.* Simultaneously, higher consumer prices increase sales tax collections and rising property values increase real estate assessments and tax bills. Expenditure ceilings address all these influences with a single measure.

Some states are placing limits (caps) on both the growth and the absolute size of government spending. This device probably originated in New Jersey in 1976, when that state's legislature limited the rate of increase in spending to the rate of increase in the personal income of the state's population. The following year (1977), Colorado placed a 7 percent per year limit on the growth of the state's general funds spending, but allowed 4 percent more to be set aside as a reserve. When the state's funds for the year exceed the sum of these two limits (11 percent), the excess is to be returned to taxpayers. Michigan also enacted an expenditure limit in 1977.

The banner year for these kinds of measures, however, was 1978. Last year Tennessee, Texas, and Hawaii limited the rate of increases in spending to the percentage growth of their economies. Each state accomplished this by constitutional amendment, so as to ensure that the rate limit would hold, at least for a while. Arizona, also by constitutional amendment, froze the level of its spending to 7 percent of its population's personal income.

The Hawaii provision was developed by a constitutional convention that was sitting last year. The convention proposed that the growth rate of state expenditures be limited to the growth rate of the state's economy and that the legislature determine how that growth is to be measured. Two thirds of each legislative house may override the limit, provided they specify the amount and purposes of the excess. Other provisions of the amendment require refunding of surplus tax revenues and prohibit deficit spending except in emergencies.

The future course of the public's inclination to curb the magnitude of revenues and expenditures is necessarily uncertain. National movements often wax for a time, then wane as other causes catch the public's fancy.

Those who would cut down government are always with us, however, and they have been pressing their cause for decades. California's Jarvis reportedly had been pushing his "cause" for a dozen years before it passed in 1978. Having sniffed the sweet fragrance of victory, his collaborators and supporters then resolved to strike again while the iron is hot, but this time they are aiming wider and higher. They want to amend the U.S. Constitution to outlaw federal deficits. From the viewpoint of the NEA, they are attempting to take budgetary discretion out of the hands of the President and Congress where the Constitution placed it, by substituting Constitutional amendment for Congressional legislation.

At this writing, state legislative sessions are just getting up steam. So far, neither governor's messages nor bills already on the dockets augur well for social programs. Elected officeholders who in past years sought to garner voters' approval by espousing education, poverty, environmental, and other popular causes now court the budget slashers. On the other hand, the 1978 election results can be read to mean

* Indexation of income taxes is a means of protecting taxpayers from tax increases that result from inflation rather than from explicit legislation. If, for example, the consumer price level increased by 10 percent, both the width of the lowest income tax bracket to which the 14 percent rate applies and the $1,000 personal exemption would rise automatically from $1,000 to $1,100.

that measures as stringent as Proposition 13 will not sweep the land, as appeared possible a few months ago. The results of following California's lead are already too sobering for some voters.

While the handwriting is clearly on California's walls, however, it will be widely read and comprehended only after the state's surplus is exhausted, and then only if efforts to inform the rest of the country are widespread. The informational efforts now underway are narrowly focused and largely addressed to educators and other governmental professionals. These groups are already alert enough to the hazards of following in California's path. They do not need convincing. The efforts need to be redirected to the less informed among the opinion makers who can influence voters in other states.

The tax limitation movement in its extreme California formulation may have passed its zenith, but its more moderate versions bid well to remain for some time. Antipathy to the property tax is deep and widespread. It is not confined to the places with the highest tax rates but is nationwide. In its 1977 report on that subject, the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR) listed 15 states, led by Kansas, that had imposed lids on local property taxes since 1970.

Property taxes are not particularly high in some of these states, nor are they in some of those where measures passed in 1978.

Pundits have long speculated about why the property tax suffers consistently low ratings in popularity polls. The survey conducted by the Opinion Research Corporation of Princeton for ACIR periodically asks, "Which do you think is the worst tax—that is, the least fair?" In four out of five polls conducted between 1973 and 1978, first place has gone to the local property tax. Last year 32 percent of those queried disliked it more than federal or state income taxes or state sales taxes.

Aversion to the property tax was most pronounced in the West (44 percent), least in the South and Northeast (27 percent). As expected, it was most pronounced among the retired (38 percent). NEA's periodic polling of teachers suggests that they share the general public's aversion to property taxes.

People are critical of the weight of the tax, particularly on low-income families; of the sudden jump in tax bills following periodic reassessments; of the inconvenient payment schedule (one or two payments a year); and of the unfair distribution of the tax burden.

Inflation has reinforced the long-standing grievances and produced additional frustrations. Efforts of assessors to fulfill their legal and professional obligation to keep up with increases in property values outrage homeowners, particularly those with fixed incomes. Even young people's difficulty in buying homes is associated with property taxes. The combination of rising property taxes, increasing costs of construction and land, and high mortgage interest rates is preempting an increased share of family income for housing. The Bureau of the Census reports that the proportion of disposable income devoted to principal, interest, and property taxes by families owning mortgaged homes reached 31.3 percent by 1976. The proportion had been 22.4 percent 20 years earlier.

If the movement to contain property taxes lasts longer and spreads further, as some believe is likely, it will confront the schools' friends with a dilemma.

School finance reformers have been laboring for years to reduce schools' reliance on property taxes. They have been motivated partly by the public's aversion to the tax, but partly by other considerations as well. Property tax collections are slow to increase because assessed values typically lag several years behind market values.

In contrast, income and sales tax collections respond quickly. A 10 percent growth in the economy, for example, typically produces little more than a proportionate increase in property taxes. It brings a substantially larger increase in income taxes, however, particularly when the tax is reasonably progressive. When this is so, as incomes rise, some people who have been below the exemption level become subject to the tax. As noted earlier, others are shifted to higher tax-rate brackets.

Heavy reliance on property taxation, moreover, produces wide disparities among local capabilities to support schools. It has therefore been viewed with increasing disfavor since the *Serrano v. Priest* decision presaged a severance of the conventional connection between local property tax wealth and the amount of taxable resources available for the education of children.

While educators and others were maligning the property tax, however, it went on merrily producing more and more dollars for schools year after year, despite its faults. Part of this growth was the result of higher tax rates. Rising property values, new construction, and improvements in techniques of assessing also contributed. So did the assignment of a larger share of the tax revenue to education. During the 20 years from 1957 to 1977, when the total property tax yield jumped from $12 billion to $60 billion, the school's share of the total rose from less than 43 percent to more than 50 percent.

The growth and stability of the property tax have been valuable attributes. They helped school systems to compensate for the fluctuations in their state's percentage share of school revenues. Periodic increases in state funding are typically followed by a gradual falloff in the state's share of school district revenues, because school budgets increase more each year than state school aid does. The cycle tends to repeat after each infusion of new state money, thus causing periodic fluctuations.

Relief at the Local Level. This country has experienced tax limitation movements before, notably following the Depression of the 1930's. That movement also was directed at the property tax. When it had run its course, the state statute books were littered with tax-rate limits, some of which remain to this day. A tabulation of state restrictions on local power to raise property tax revenue (in the previously cited 1977 ACIR report on that subject) requires 15 pages of fine print.

These earlier limitations, however, generally applied to assessed values only; thus they left escape hatches. Assessed value typically represented only a fraction of actual value. Despite tax rate limits, then, tax bills could be increased simply by raising the assessed value nearer to the legally prescribed level. Moreover, avenues of

escape to other local taxes and to state aid also were left open.

The limitation measures enjoying vogue today are more nearly escape-proof. The current tax-rate limits are keyed to actual market value, and the "caps" apply to aggregate expenditures or aggregate revenues. In addition, after the earlier limitations, state after state withdrew from taxing property. Until then, most states, too, had lived primarily on property taxes. When they vacated this tax area, they left it for the exclusive use of their local governments.

In turn, the states discovered general sales taxes which they could use both to finance their own operations and to satisfy school and other local pressures for state aid. In seven years (1932-38), half of the states enacted general sales taxes. Human ingenuity may yet discover an avenue of escape from the newly enacted, more sophisticated limits, but it is not yet in sight.

Schools share the property tax with other local entities and, in a very few places, with the state government. If the tax yield is cut back by constitutional or statutory limitations, how is the remaining amount to be apportioned? The politically neutral response is apportionment in proportion to each entity's share before the cutback.

Schools, however, have a case for an increased share. This is the principal escape hatch available to them locally. Counties and cities have or can be given access to other producers of revenue—income, consumer, and excise taxes. With few exceptions, schools have not been. Moreover, counties and cities are generally better able to administer nonproperty taxes than school districts are.

Where property tax-rate limits are still tied to assessed value, efforts to reform property taxes and increase public acceptance of property taxation become more important to the cause of education. Public school interests in some states are therefore starting to take a more active role in these efforts.

Improved conformity with legal requirements for assessment reduces revenue losses that now benefit some property owners. Although assessment reform has widespread support, however, it has been slow in coming about. Much of its recent progress reflects more credit on the courts than on the legislatures.

People resist assessment reform because—understandably—they associate it with tax increases. Reform generally does result in increased assessments. It need not, however, result in increased tax collections. Tax rates can be reduced as the assessments rise, so that actual collection levels remain the same.

In the past, when reforms increased assessments, governing boards all too often retained the higher tax rates or made only token reductions; at the time, responding to pressures for increased spending seemed politically more compelling than keeping collection levels down.

The friends of the public schools are well advised to support assessment reform. It is essential to the fair distribution of the tax burden, and this in turn is an essential first step toward assuaging the public's anger with the tax.

Supporters of assessment reform are on the side of the angels.

Supporters of assessment reform are on the side of the angels: scholars, practitioners of the art of assessment, their professional associations, and study groups are generally agreed on what is required to accomplish it. ACIR has incorporated its recommendations for reform into a group of model laws and made them available to state legislators and policymakers:

Prescription for Assessment Reform

Clearly, good quality administration requires, first of all, a law the assessor can administer, live and work with, and be honest about. Second, it requires an assessor who is professionally trained and shielded by career status from political pressure. This means selection by appointment, not by election, although in most states the latter system still prevails. Third, it requires a taxing district with enough properties to permit the use of a large enough staff to accommodate all the specialties in appraisal skills required to assess the different kinds of properties found within the taxing district.

The logical assessing unit is the state; but that system prevails only in Hawaii. In some states the assessing unit is the county; but in some the assessing work is splintered among thousands of local governments. Often overlying jurisdictions duplicate one another's work by making separate assessments. However, in most parts of the country special kinds of business properties, notably railroads and other public utilities and, less often, forests, are assessed by state agencies.

Sound assessment administration requires also a state agency, staffed with qualified people who are authorized to supervise local assessors, pass on their qualifications, peer over their shoulders to verify that they are doing a creditable job and, where necessary, help them to improve their performance.

Finally taxpayers must be given speedy, economic, and efficient means of relief from overassessment. For this purpose they need to be supplied with information on the assessment rules followed in their taxing jurisdiction.

Source: Ecker-Racz, L. L. *The Politics and Economics of State-Local Finance.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970. p. 80.

We can expect rigid and escape-proof limits on tax rates to revive state legislatures' interest in assessment reform. Such limitations will confront them with the need to augment the revenues of local entities, including the schools. Without state help, these entities will be unable to perform the jobs the states have delegated to them.

Under most state constitutions, education is a state responsibility. The states have delegated that responsibility to local governments and left them the property tax, supplemented by other resources, to provide the required revenues. Where the revenue productivity of the property tax is diminished, states will need to supplement it with increasing financial aid. This causal, inverse relationship between property tax revenue and the need for state aid makes it likely that states will be increasingly obliged to make sure that localities comply with assessment rules.

States had a similar interest in enforcement of assessment rules before the 1930's, when they themselves were still levying property taxes on property whose assessed value was locally determined. They lost that interest when they left the property tax for local use, abandoning a direct revenue stake in it.

To get the greatest possible revenue

yield from the property tax where tax-rate limits are rigid, governments must also reject or terminate exemptions and credits for such politically favored groups as veterans, senior citizens, the disabled, farmers, and homeowners. The currently popular "circuit breaker," a provision that relieves low-income households (especially of the elderly) from very high property taxes, may be an exception. Typically, it is implemented through a credit against the state income tax and so does not reduce local property tax revenues.

Relief at the State Level. State governments' finances have flourished in recent years as a by-product of the economic recovery and the response of their strengthened tax structures to that recovery. Income and sales tax collections rise particularly fast during an inflation. Between 1975 and 1978, state tax collections jumped more than 40 percent.

Income tax performance has been especially striking: it averaged more than 13 percent annual increase between 1973 and 1977 and a record 16.7 percent in 1978. Moreover, federal grants have increased at an unprecedented pace.

Income and sales taxes performed exceptionally for local governments as well, but their local use is limited and their aggregate yield at that level has never quite equalled one sixth of the property tax collections. The latter, incidentally, recorded an average annual increase of only slightly more than 8 percent.

These aggregates embrace a wide variety of fiscal conditions in the 50 states. States that rely relatively heavily on both progressive income taxes and high-rate sales taxes have fared particularly well. They are, however, more vulnerable to economic slowdowns. When these occur, their collections decline. In parts of the South, for example, the economy has been strong but the states do not have strong tax systems, so their tax collections have been slow to respond.

The prospects for increased help from the states are dimmed also by an anticipated slowdown in the growth of federal grants. Federal grants increased by $9.5 billion from 1977 to 1978 and $5 billion from 1978 to 1979, but the President's proposed budget calls for less than a $1 billion increase in fiscal year 1980.

The slowing in growth of federal grants will create difficult adjustment problems in states where new grant programs that were intended to provide jobs for the unemployed have been diverted to support personnel already on public payrolls. These states now face a choice between reducing their work forces and finding other sources of revenue to replace the federal funds.

States may not, for all these reasons, have much latitude for relieving local governments whose revenues fall short of expenditure needs because of new tax limits, especially if an economic slowdown occurs.

The states' financial condition has a bright side as well, however. As a group, they occupy a stronger fiscal position in the federal system than before. All these years, the federal government has been systematically weakening the revenue-producing capability of the strong tax system it inherited from the Korean War by reducing tax rates and sprinkling the Revenue Code with relief measures.

The states meanwhile have been fortifying their tax systems and building their case for more and larger federal grants. They have enacted and strengthened income and sales taxes; developed business taxes; and increased the rates of selected excises, notably those on cigarettes, alcoholic beverages, and motor fuels.

Between 1959 and 1976, the ACIR tallied 41 new state tax enactments and nearly 600 tax increases. Every state is represented in the tally. Fifteen passed more than 20 separate measures; only 15 passed fewer than 10. Between mid-1973 and the end of 1976 alone, the tally records 61 separate measures to increase revenues.

This legislative activity has not exhausted the possibilities for increasing state revenues. A fifth of the states (Texas, Washington, and Florida, for example) still do not have income taxes, and five (Delaware and Oregon, for example) do not have sales taxes. In some states, one or the other of these taxes is imposed at a rate that is low in comparison with those that prevail generally across the nation.

The National Institute of Education has recently released *Tax Wealth in the Fifty States*, which provides a good measure of the potential additional revenues that states could secure through commonly used state taxes.

Prospects for Federal Help. If we told a stranger to these shores—an Australian teacher, for example—about the fiscal plight of the public schools, the stranger would be quick to ask: "Why not turn to the federal government?" In some other federal systems the national government's school financing role is in fact substantial.

Our case is different. It is true that the federal government has had some involvement in education during most of its history and that the public values education and appreciates the critical role it plays in its children's prospects for "the good life." Nevertheless, nearly a century of effort preceded enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965, and that law is as near as Congress and the Administration have ever come to agreeing on a program even resembling general aid to education. Furthermore, even the relatively modest ESEA program came into being only with the benefit of skillful White House leadership, a united front of several "education interests," and the protective cloak of the then-popular "war on poverty."

Our numerous federal education measures provide funds to fill explicit categories of need. They have come into being only as the Congress has been persuaded that states were neglecting one or another narrowly defined but nationally important need: the Defense Education Act and the programs that provide funds for school lunch programs, vocational education, and bilingual education are examples. The subtleties of U.S. politics—the divisiveness of such hoary issues as race, religion, and local control over the operation of schools as well as the narrow educational interests of the patrons and constituencies of categorical education grants—explain but do not justify the continuing lack of a forthright federal general aid program for the public schools.

Federal grants in general have increased at a record rate in the last several years, but general education's share has not kept pace. The dollar

amount of aggregate federal grants doubled between 1973 and 1978.

In contrast, in 1969 the federal contribution to elementary and secondary education covered 7.4 percent of public schools' expenditures. It reached 8.9 percent by 1973 but has never reached that level again, although increases in its dollar amount have been substantial during the present Administration. The estimate for 1979 is 8.8 percent.

Neither the Administration nor the Congress seems receptive to the idea of increasing federal aid to education massively at this time. The relatively strong fiscal position of the states is one reason, particularly as it contrasts with the federal fiscal stringency that the President and the Congress now advocate. If school finances across the country deteriorate significantly, these attitudes could change. The situation would need to be critical, however, to overcome the divisiveness within the educational community itself. Each of the several parts of that community continues to be preoccupied with its own particular categorical program, indifferent to the case for general school aid.

The political potency of a united front in the education community should be fresh in the minds of teachers. Without a united front, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act probably would not have been born or at least would not have survived repeated efforts to reduce it. Federal legislative history provides some support for the contention that strong, sensitive leaders can overcome divisiveness and that a national need can become so pressing that the Congress finds relieving it to be essential for the national welfare.

The near-term fiscal outlook for public schools is not encouraging. The years of double-digit growth in the amount of public resources at the disposal of elementary and secondary education are ending. Local restrictions on revenues from the property tax, limitations on the growth and aggregate level of taxes and expenditures at the state and local levels, and budgetary stringencies at the federal level—all of these factors point in the same direction.

These influences appear to be nationwide. The course of the nation's economy and the Administration's success in beginning to contain inflation will have a substantial effect on them.

Now, as always, however, national trends obscure some regional differences. The Sunbelt and the South may experience lesser pains than, say, the Northeast. Their economies exhibit more resilience, and in the South fiscal pressures are less compelling. Some of the Southern states still have room for considerable income tax and, even more, property tax increases. South Carolina, Florida, and most of all Louisiana are examples.

The schools' competition for additional financial support is likely to be most intense in the Congress and in the older industrial states that have conspicuous urban problems. Here interests with which the National Education Association traditionally makes common cause—minorities, poverty groups, and national health insurance advocates, for example—will now be competing with education for the few dollars available for new budget commitments.

In the increasingly politicized legislative climate, organized political action is likely to grow more important. The schools' efforts will become more effective as their emphasis shifts from arguing on behalf of education in general (e.g., that it is essential for the nation's continued growth and greatness) to showing how the schools are using their tax dollars more effectively to benefit the country's youth.

Such arguments will be the most compelling because the scope for using public dollars more effectively, be it in education or in other services, is generally presumed to be substantial. During the rapid growth of the public sector in recent decades, guards were down and budgetary strictures were relaxed—or at least that is a widely held view. Many people believe, too, that increases in expenditure are not necessarily the result of increased needs because governments' spending has a propensity to rise to the level of available revenues.

The public instinctively supports its schools, as the polls continue to reveal. It wants to be convinced, however, that it is getting good value for its school dollars. □

Teacher Opinion Poll

Issues of School Finance

In 1978-79, the federal government is providing 9 percent of the revenue for public elementary and secondary schools. Teachers feel that this figure should be at least doubled. They also feel that contrary to the practice in half the states, the state should provide more revenue for public schools than local government provides. Nine in 10 teachers believe that no matter who provides the revenue, local school districts must have some authority to determine the level of expenditure per student.

These figures are based on NEA's 1978 Teacher Opinion Poll of a national sample of public school teachers.

The respondents felt that income taxes are a desirable source of school revenue at the state and federal levels, but not nearly so desirable at the local level. They considered property taxes a less desirable revenue source than sales, commodity, or corporate and business taxes for all three levels. About two-thirds of the respondents felt that lotteries would be desirable at the state level, and about half felt that they were desirable at the local and federal levels.

The poll included questions about two other issues: tax credits and social security.

- More than two-thirds of the respondents were against giving parents federal income tax credits to partially offset costs of education in private or parochial schools.
- About two-thirds of the teachers said they were covered by social security through their employment as teachers. However, 1 in 6 of these said they did not want to be covered, and a big majority of those who were not covered wanted to stay that way. Half of the female teachers and one-fourth of the male teachers said they would be eligible for benefits through a spouse's employment.

About 45 percent felt the federal government should share the cost of social security coverage with the employer and employee.

—NEA Research.

CAREER EDUCATION AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

CLIFTON R. WHARTON, JR.
Chancellor, State University of New York, Albany.

The amazing growth of career education in the past several years has been one of the significant developments of American education in the 1970's.

In 1971, the then U.S. Commissioner of Education, Sidney Marland, gave career education a new impetus. Since then, federal funds for career training and counseling have increased 750 percent, from $9 million in 1971 to nearly $70 million in 1977. Moreover, state and local funds have been generated by this federal investment.

Foundations and corporations also have supported career education. So have a wide range of national organizations, from the Chamber of Commerce and the AFL-CIO to the National Council of Churches and the Girl Scouts.

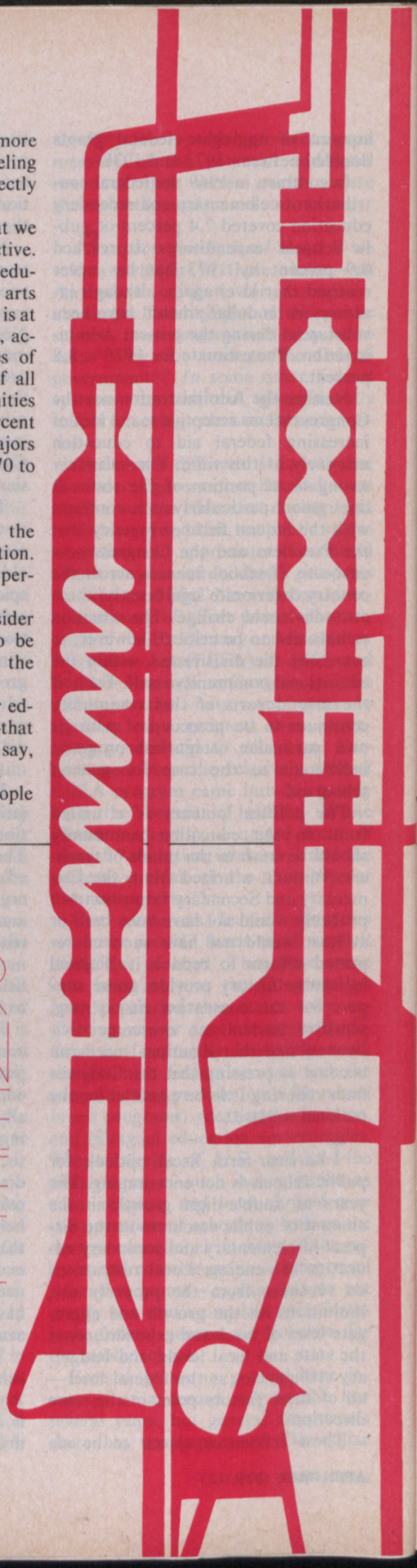
High schools and colleges throughout the land have added more "practical" courses to their curriculums. Some small colleges have switched almost entirely from liberal education to career programs. Students, astonishingly alert to new educational fashions and new sources of financial support, are flocking to vocational, career, and professional courses.

The pressure is so strong that more professors each year are relabeling their courses so that they seem directly related to paid employment.

At this point, I want to urge that we keep career education in perspective. At present, the growth of career education is so explosive that liberal arts education in America is dying—or is at least seriously weakened. In 1970, according to A. W. Astin's studies of college freshmen, 12.7 percent of all freshmen were arts and humanities majors. By 1975, only 8.3 percent were. The number of English majors has dropped from 3 percent in 1970 to less than 1 percent today.

There are many reasons for the recent spread of career education. Some are real, some merely perceived.

- More and more, people consider the content of college courses to be removed from and irrelevant to the world of work.
- People think that what career education there is, is misdirected—that colleges train too many teachers, say, and too few electronic technicians.
- Unemployment of young people



has risen, partly because, the arguments run, young people are not trained for existing jobs.

- Too many professors appear disdainful, if not hostile, toward business and industry.
- A few scholars publicize the idea that students are being overeducated—prepared through humane learning and science to be leaders rather than technicians and service workers.
- Hard times—slower economic growth, inflation, and high taxes—are ahead for the United States. People have to get back to basics, to do-it-yourself, to the ethic of hard work.

The swift rise of career education has other reasons, too. It started near the end of the Vietnam War, when some thought that college students had simplistically rejected reality, work, and achievement and were filled with fancy ideas fertilized by too much leisure, too much money, and too much permissiveness.

Further, the costs of higher education are rising, and the share borne by students and their families is increasing. So the demand increases for courses that are helpful in getting jobs. Students and their parents ask, Why should we use our hard-earned dollars to pay for general education "frills"? Every course taken and paid for, it seems, should pay off directly by helping the student get a job.

The most fundamental reason of all, however, may be the movement of masses of formerly excluded young people—children of blue-collar workers, minorities, women, and the less academically gifted—into our colleges. Proponents of career education argue, "Surely most of them can't be trained for traditional careers in law, medicine, theology, university teaching, engineering, business, and the government bureaucracy. Surely, they need to be trained for new kinds of careers." The emphasis on vocational and career education almost implies a two-track college approach.

So the arguments run.

Two things are very clear. One is that we are being swept away by a tidal wave of new enthusiasm, in both public and private institutions, for vocational and career higher education. The other is that colleges and universities have superficially attractive and plausible reasons to move in this direction in the 1970's. I am acutely aware of these developments, and I support the trend—to a limited extent.

But I also have some grave doubts. At times career education seems to be to the 1970's what free electives and so-called "relevant" courses and "nontraditional" teaching were to the 1960's. Let me give some reasons for my reluctance to jump on the bandwagon.

First, career education, which seems so new to some educators, is really as old as education itself. The earliest universities in Western civilization—Bologna, Paris, Salamanca, Oxford—all had the express purpose of training people for careers: in the churches, the courts, medicine, teaching, and royal administration.

Sir Walter Scott has reminded us that chivalric education for the elite in the Middle Ages was education for performance. One manual of the time stated, "The squire must be able to spring upon a horse while fully armed; to exercise himself in running; to strike for a length of time with the axe or club; to dance and do somersaults entirely armed except for his helmet . . . " and so forth. Being a squire in

the twelfth century was a career that needed special training.

To go even further back, Plato's *The Republic* was basically an examination of what kind of education Greece should provide in order to get real philosopher-kings as rulers and the best people into other careers of leadership.

In 1636, Harvard was established mainly to train men for careers in the church and in teaching. Two centuries later, the Land-Grant Act, which gave birth to some of our leading state universities, was specifically designed to set up new kinds of colleges for what were called "the laboring classes"—in agriculture, the military arts, and mechanics (which we today would call engineering and technology).

So American higher education, and indeed most higher education since its origins, has been in great part devoted to training for careers. To some extent the "discovery" in 1971 of career education is akin to the discovery by Monsieur Jourdain in Moliere's play *The Bourgeois Gentleman* that he had been speaking prose all his life.

A second cause of doubt is that as hard as I have tried, I have been unable to pin down exactly what is meant by "career education."

Many of the strongest advocates stress that career education is not vocational education, that it has more to do with counseling and with work generally than with specific jobs. Yet there is little doubt that career education has its roots in the Vocational Educational Amendments of 1968 and that former Commissioner of Education Terrel Bell in speaking of it said, "It is our duty to provide students with salable skills."

Kenneth Hoyt, the director of the U.S. Office of Career Education, has said, "Career education is the totality of experiences through which one learns about, and prepares to engage in, work as part of his or her way of living." That is a very broad definition. It can include such things as preschool toys, talks with a grandfather about his preretirement days, and postdoctoral training. Others have written of "finding meaningful work," "deciding upon a satisfying career," and "improving the relations between schools and society."

The American Association of State Colleges and Universities' statement on career education is one of the best. It speaks of career education as "a composition of activities, experiences, and results that prepare people for a successful transition to work, along with a rewarding personal life-style." It also says career education is a lifelong process that begins in the primary years and that increases occupational training but keeps what the Association calls "a liberal arts base."

Even the National Advisory Council on Career Education found in its 1976 Interim Report that what constitutes career education is still "untidy." I myself think that career education is at bottom a spirit, a mood, a vague sense that all education ought to be more related than it has been to manpower needs and the demands of the economy.

Third, career education may be based on a misreading of what the leaders of American business really want.

It is true that some employers, particularly small business people, have applauded the increase in vocationalism on our campuses. But a major study in 1976 by The Conference Board, which does studies for U.S. industry, found several interesting things. In 1975—a recession year—the nation's 7,500 largest employers spent more than $2 billion to train employees and executives. (This sum equals the total amount given to all American colleges and universities by all sources in that year.)

Most business leaders said they did not consider this kind of training "the responsibility of the schools to provide." Most said that what they most desire from the schools and colleges is not more vocational education but elimination of the serious deficiencies among younger employees in basic skills such as writing, speech, mathematics, computer use, and knowledge of how our government and economy really work.

The message is this. Most business people, especially corporate leaders, prefer to train employees in their own way of doing things. But they would like to have the schools graduate young persons who are articulate, literate, good at using numbers, informed about democracy and capitalism—and above all, persons who can think. They want soundly educated persons, not vocationally trained employees.

Fourth, the career education movement may contain an unintended class and racial bias. Large numbers of students from blue-collar backgrounds, minorities, women, and those not in the top third of their classes by traditional measurements are now entering our colleges. It is interesting that we seem to think of them mostly as material for the middle-level and upper-lower-level positions in society.

Some colleges have refused to slot these students for low-level careers. The City College of New York, for example, has for a century given a solid, liberal education to the children of immigrants, workers, and minorities. Its graduates have become poets and professors, financiers and surgeons.

We must be careful not to identify what K. Patricia Cross calls the "new students" as fit only for technical and vocational positions. If their primary and secondary school preparation is sound, these students can handle the more rigorous liberal arts and sciences programs in college as well as anyone else, and become as competent leaders as anyone else. If their preparation is deficient, it will be harder for many of

NEA Resolution 78-23: Career Education

The National Education Association believes that a goal of public education is to provide all individuals, preschool through adulthood, opportunities to become effective, productive citizens. To achieve this goal, the career education concept must be interwoven into the total educational system and needs to include programs in awareness and exploration to aid students in career course selection.

The Association believes that educational programs should be developed that will assure equal opportunity for career development for all students and offer exploratory experiences in a variety of careers. The united teaching profession should be encouraged to provide in-service experiences and released time for teachers for curriculum development in this area and should cooperate with industry and agencies in full support of career education programs.

them, and we may have to provide extra help, guidance, and direction at the college level.

In any case, those responsible for career education must guard against unintentional class or racial insult and stereotyping.

Fifth, insofar as career education is preparation mainly for one kind of work, it puts individuals in jeopardy because our economy is changing.

Perhaps because I am an economist, I have been particularly sensitive to the fact that people today change jobs with greater frequency than before. More and more persons even change careers two or three times.

Therefore, if we spend much time in those precious college years educating people not for the dynamics and uncertainties of life but for one job or career, we may be doing them—and society—a disservice. We may produce a highly specialized graduate whose training is so narrow that his or her career is limited to one job. Any major change in that field could suddenly result in unemployment, and the graduate would have neither the skills nor the intellectual flexibility for an alternative career.

Career education, I fear, is education with a low ceiling. It may help get that first job or position but actually retard growth and work opportunities as time passes.

Sixth, one of the few recent developments in higher education that has seen growth as dramatic as that of career education is lifelong education. The explosion of information and the escalating obsolescence of information is forcing upon higher education a new set of demands: for updating, retooling, and recertification. The university is losing its traditional character as a community of youth.

There are now more adults over 25 than college-age students enrolled in classes in the United States. In a world of rapid demands for new and better knowledge, lifelong learning has become the new pattern of education in our land. Career education, however, usually ends at what is so wisely called commencement.

Higher education must respond to the new pattern of continuing education. One of the ways it can respond best is to provide those vital skills of learning, those habits of thought, those sensibilities, and those core subjects that best allow people to go on learning, stretching their minds and their dreams throughout their lives.

The really critical question for higher education today is not how to provide more career education. It is how to revise the structure and content of undergraduate education so that it will prepare students for a lifetime of continuous learning and a changing array of jobs, positions, and careers.

Career education, by concentrating so heavily on the short-term economic ends of university training, is in danger of neglecting the political and personal ends. It is important that our graduates be intelligent, discerning, tolerant, humane citizens. Our democratic way of life demands it.

Our universities must continue to train people for both good lives and good work.

It is important, too, that our graduates engage in humanistic thinking and exploring because people not only need jobs, they also need fulfillment both in their work and in their leisure. The decline in the length of the work week means that today many have almost as much time for leisure as for work. Self-fulfillment in work must be matched by self-fulfillment in leisure. Such fulfillment will come primarily from a clear understanding of oneself and society, from knowing what is valuable, from possessing an educated heart.

I have a deeper concern about higher education and the current national mood. It seems to me that our nation is going through a gigantic loss of nerve, a massive decline in faith in ourselves. We seem to be suffering from creeping shrinkage of vision.

Yet what we need at this pivotal point in our history is fresh thinking, fresh courage, and fresh values. That is, we need more people who are creative, ingenious, vigorous, bold, and humane. We need more and better education, not less. And we certainly need more rigorous general education—for all our citizens—that will provide the tools and daring to build anew in disturbing new conditions.

If higher education is a preparation for a better life, work is still the most time-consuming, consequential, even passionate component of our waking lives. I agree with the philosopher Alfred North Whitehead that "education should turn out a student with something he knows well and something he can do well. The intellect does not work in a vacuum." Our universities must continue to train people for both good lives and good work.

I hope, however, that our vision as educators will not be shortsighted. Our present students will be at their greatest powers some 40 years from now. Surely we should prepare them for life in the year 2020 as much as for their first jobs in the next year or two.

Every college and university worth its name has an obligation to be responsive. But it has a greater obligation to be responsible. To yield to the present cries for more careerism is to be responsive. Our responsibility, however, is to lead as well as follow, to prepare young men and women to shape our civilization during the next half century. No other institution in our society can exercise such leadership.

We should never forget that the main purpose of higher education—the purpose that makes all the efforts and anguish worthwhile—is to help build a better society by graduating better people with better ideas. As a by-product of carrying out that large and critical task, we can help men and women get better jobs.

I hope we never confuse the by-product with our central purpose. □

Chancellor Wharton spoke on this subject at greater length at the Third National Congress on Career Education of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, held in Detroit in March of last year.

"If I Taught Government Again . . ."

By LANNY HALL
Member, Texas State Legislature; former special assistant to House Majority Leader Jim Wright; former Government teacher, L. D. Bell High School; Hurst, Texas.

On an average day four years ago, I could be found at the chalkboard lecturing to a government class on the legislative process or the duties of a member of Congress. Little more than a year ago, I was in the middle of that process, helping a member of Congress carry out those duties in Washington. Today, I myself am a member of the Texas legislature.

Since I left the classroom in June 1975, I have been able to see the federal governmental process firsthand while working for Representative Jim Wright of Fort Worth, Texas, and the state electoral process as a candidate in primary, run-off, and general elections.

I have seen the federal government from different angles: as a Congressional staff assistant to the National Commission on Water Quality, as staff member of the House Public Works Subcommittee on Investigations and Review, and as special assistant to the majority leader of the House of Representatives.

During these experiences I have often reflected on how I would teach American government differently if I ever returned to the classroom: What would I emphasize that I skimmed over in the past? What chapters in the text would I now ignore? What outside material would I add? How would I rewrite those curriculum guides I struggled with as I tried to find the right approach?

Perhaps it is presumptuous to consider that I now could do a better job, but I believe my experience of the last four years has better equipped me for teaching. On the basis of that experience, I'd like to offer three recommendations to improve the teaching of government or civics in high school.

First, we need to spend more time on the informal legislative process.

Throughout my public school education, my teachers spent a lot of time going over formal steps in lawmaking. At least a half dozen times before I graduated from high school I had to recite, to write from memory, or to draw a diagram of something entitled "How a Bill Becomes a Law." This exercise seemed almost as common to social studies as the mastery of multiplication tables was to mathematics.

Although I have not researched the effect of new math on multiplication tables, I am sure someone has developed new approaches to teaching them. This is precisely what I suggest for teaching the lawmaking process: New approaches.

Memory drills have their place, but when it comes to learning how an idea is transformed into public law, what students need is less drill and memorization and more experimental exercise and understanding.

Certainly it is important to understand that bills must be placed on the calendar, run the gauntlet of the committee system, and undergo close scrutiny on the House and Senate floors before they are placed on the President's desk for signature. To reduce the complex process down to certain enumerated steps and ask students to memorize these, however, is to show students only the tip of a huge iceberg.

When I was teaching, I used simulations, class discussions, and group activity to involve students with the materials we were studying. Today I am even more strongly in favor of these approaches.

Today, too, however, I'd spend only a little time on how bills are introduced, printed, and voted on (the mechanics) and much more time on what happens to the bill between the time it is referred to committee and the time it finally reaches the House or Senate floor.

I'd show the various methods legislators use to muster support for bills, how pressure is put on committee members and staff, and how personal differences and regional conflicts can arise among committee members.

In short, I'd let my students know how human motivations affect the legislative process.

My second recommendation on the teaching of government is that we emphasize the input that people in government receive from lobbyists and various public and private interest groups.

Somehow, when we teach about the government, we are likely to either ignore the lobbyist's role or cast it in such an evil light that we never discuss its positive aspects. Shortly after I came to Washington, however, I had an experience which caused me to realize the impact of lobbying and interest groups.

It was the fall of 1975. I was observing a meeting in the Old Executive Office Building next door to the White House. Vice-President Nelson Rockefeller, chairperson of the National Commission on Water Quality, was meeting with about a dozen representatives of environmental and other interest groups to discuss the future of the water pollution abatement program in the United States.

At the Vice-President's right elbow was a representative of Ducks Unlimited. Down the table sat a spokesperson for the National Audubon Society. A few chairs further on was a delegate from the League of Women Voters.

As I sat there, just a few months after leaving the classroom, I thought, "I never told my students this type of

input takes place." I had not let my students know that such meetings could be important. These groups had the opportunity to influence national environmental policy.

Neither the Vice-President nor the National Commission on Water Quality had authority to pass water pollution legislation, but they did eventually make recommendations to Congress on how the law should be changed. And some of the things they heard from various groups influenced those recommendations.

Meetings like that one take place almost every day. They may not be held in the halls outside the House or Senate chambers; they may not occur in Congressional hearings. Many times they take place outside the formal structure altogether. Nevertheless, the information transmitted serves a useful purpose and often becomes a basis for administrative or legislative action.

Although I do not deny that abuses of the lobbyist's position have occurred in the past and will continue to occur in the future, I submit that much good comes from the information and suggestions he or she brings to the law-making process. For too long we have dismissed the lobbyist by describing to our students a Thomas Nast cartoon character smoking a big cigar and flashing a pocketful of money.

I recommend that teachers call attention to the interest groups' work by inviting representatives from environmental groups, labor unions, civil groups, and organizations such as the League of Women Voters to speak to students. Ask these representatives to dwell, not on the substance of their particular interests, but rather on how they influence policy at all levels of government.

For example, a civics teacher could invite an NEA representative to speak. NEA certainly does an effective job of

(continued on page 80)

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lobbying; as a matter of fact, President Johnson once told NEA, "Your active support and involvement in the passage of legislation covering all facets of education is beyond compare."

From my own experience, in brief, it seems we have sold short the role of interest groups and the concept of lobbying. If I taught government again, this is one area where I would want to do a better job.

My final recommendation is that we devote more time and effort to studying the importance of the various regulatory agencies and the vast bureaucracy.

The classic "three branch separation of powers" lecture serves a useful purpose, but again, we are guilty of gross oversimplification if we fail to show students the vast power that the government bureaucracy exerts each day. Our neat division of the government into the legislative, executive, and judicial branches will mislead students unless we explain that regulatory agencies—some clearly within the executive branch—have authority to make, interpret, and enforce regulations having the force of law.

In a newsletter to constituents, Congressman Wright once pointed out that "during a two-year period in which Congress was passing some 500 laws, the unelected bureaucracy was writing almost 10,000 new regulations." This news could be a shock to students who have been told by their government teacher that "only Congress makes law."

Too often civics teachers provide students with what I like to call "alphabet soup" lectures and exercises when they come to the chapter on regulatory agencies. I used to assure myself that my students knew what *EPA* and *FCC* stood for, but I never really got down to explaining how these agencies hold public hearings and promulgate regulations that influence all of us day to day.

Looking back, I realize I left out some of the most important information—I was using a "broad brush" approach so I could finish the chapter and give a test on Friday.

Other recommendations on teaching civics come to mind, but the basic lesson I have learned from working in

government is this: Students and teachers must have more opportunities to experience and react to what is going on in the U.S. government.

The line separating form and substance is often fine. As we attempt to lead our students on an exploration of their government, we often show them only form—the organizational chart. We leave substance for later, but many students never have the chance to discover it.

Perhaps we should reexamine both what and how we teach. We should give students more opportunity—for example, through field trips, speakers, and projects—to experience what happens in government, not merely see the structure.

In order to guide students through the experience, we teachers should take advantage of opportunities to experience more ourselves. We may be able to travel to Washington or the state capital, observe local government in action, participate in discussions with representatives of interest groups or government agencies, take part in summer intern programs and seminars. The insights we gain will greatly improve our teaching.

In my career, the cart got before the horse. I hope that the next time I enter a government classroom I will be able to draw on my Washington experience to give students a more realistic understanding of the democratic process. □

This article has been adapted from the October 1978 *The Texas Outlook* of the Texas State Teachers Association.

For information about the NEA legislative program, see the September-October 1978 issue of *Today's Education*. For further information, write to NEA Government Relations.

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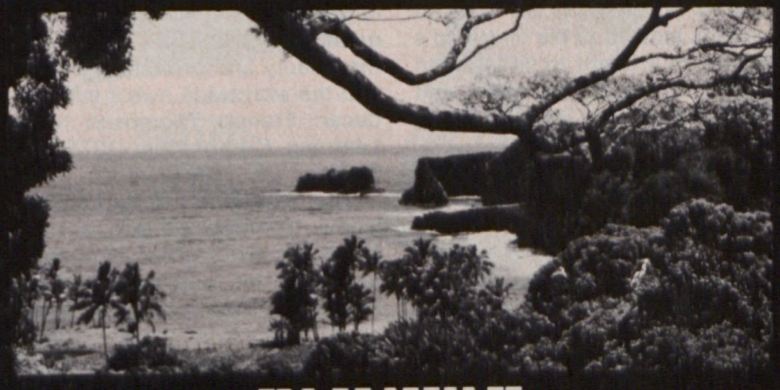

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Selected Films for Young Adults—1978

These films are recommended for use in programs planned to be of interest to young adults. The list was compiled by members of the Selected Films for Young Adults Committee, Young Adult Services Division, American Library Association.

The films were selected from titles released in the United States in 1975, 1976, and 1977 and suggested by school and public librarians and audiovisual specialists across the country. They were chosen, after viewing, on the basis of young adult appeal, but each reviewer and juror also took into consideration technical quality of the film, subject content, and use of the film with different kinds of audiences. Like any other film, each title should be previewed before being incorporated into a young adult program.

All films are 16mm and in color, unless otherwise noted. Although most can be rented, only the sale price is listed, and that is subject to change.

Blind Sunday. A relationship develops between a high school boy and girl, but problems occur when the boy too often reminds himself of his girlfriend's blindness. In an attempt to understand her feelings, he tapes his eyes shut temporarily. Producer: Daniel Wilson. Time-Life. 1976. 32 min., $400.

For Gentlemen Only. Two gentlemen who reside in a decaying urban hotel respond to their loneliness, boredom, and social rejection by plotting a childish prank that livens the day and cements their friendship. Producer: Vladimir Valenta for the National Film Board of Canada. Wombat. 1977. 28 min., $395.

Get It Together. A paraplegic whose interests, job, and hopeful future transcend his confinement to a wheelchair talks about his work as a recreational therapist with other paraplegics, his own handicap, and his marriage. A film by Richard A. Miner. Pyramid. 1976. 20 min., $300.

I'm a Fool. At the turn of this century, a young man sets out to see the world and succeed at his first job as a horse trainer's assistant. What he learns in his first summer on his own is that it is far too easy to be a fool and much more difficult to be a man. Adapted from the Sherwood Anderson short story of the same title. Producer: Robert Geller for Learning in Focus. Perspective Films. 1977. 37 min., $522.

It Must Be Love, 'Cause I Feel So Dumb. When short, shy Eric falls for a cute cheerleader classmate, he learns by trial and error that affection cannot be bought or bargained for. This honest and humorous dramatization will have a strong appeal for youths aged 11 to 14. Producer: Verite Productions. Director: Arthur Barron. Learning Corporation. 1976. 29 min., $355.

Metamorphosis. A staid businessman enters an elevator, quickly sheds his clothes, and redresses in time to leave the elevator just as he entered. As he increases speed each day, he adds challenges until a metamorphosis occurs. A film by Barry Greenwald. Creative Film Society. 1975. 10 min., black and white, $135.

Monsieur Pointu. Portrayed through the inventive animation technique of pixilation, violinist Paul Cormier plays Québecois country music as his body and his musical instrument split into a zany display of dismembered arms, legs, feet, and violin parts. A film by Bernard Longpré and André Leduc. Pyramid. 1975. 13 min., $200.

Moonwalk. When man walked on the moon in July of 1969, a centuries-old fantasy became a space-age reality. Musing on the historical and philosophical wonders as well as the technical intricacies of space travel, this documentary recreates the event, reflecting the beauty and profundity of the quest and the worldwide awe it inspired. Producer: Francis Thompson for NASA. Learning Corporation. 1975. 40 min., $495.

The Murderer. In a futuristic and highly technical society, a man confesses to the murder of a telephone, television set, and radio—all seen by him as infringements on his individuality. Adapted from a story of the same title by Ray Bradbury. Producer: Andrew Silver. Phoenix. 1976. 28 min., $395.

Nightlife. A traveling camera and time-lapse photography capture the sensuous, intimate beauty of underwater existence. Shot off the coast of Ireland, the film, accompanied only by music, submerges the viewer in the exotic marine world. A film by Robin Lehman. Phoenix. 1976. 12 min., $250.

Portrait of a Nurse. As a nurse practitioner, Jean Steele has expanded the role of registered nurse into one that provides direct and often total patient care. This documentary follows Steele as she goes about her jobs of teaching, consulting, and practicing in an urban out-patient clinic. The positive way in which this nurse sees herself and her work makes the film an excellent career guide. Producer: Susan Farist Butler. Butler-Freedman Films. 1976. 28 min., $375.

Seconds To Play. This fast-paced documentary exposes the sophisticated technical world of television by interlacing footage of a UCLA-Ohio State game with the behind-the-scene chaos of its television production. Producer: Patrick Crowley. Films Incorporated. 1976. 28 min., $375.

Trader Vic's Used Cars. Funny, fast-talking Trader Vic Snyder sells used cars at the rate of 14 a day on his car lot in Los Angeles. Vic is more than candid about his sales tricks and techniques, and while one laughs at his peppery wit, he imparts valuable consumer information. A film by Charles Braverman. Encyclopaedia Britannica. 1975. 10 min., $150.

Women in Sports: An Informal History. A montage of art prints, still photos, and historical and contemporary film footage presents a comprehensive survey of women in athletics. While chronologically detailing women's sports accomplishments, the film also documents those social attitudes that have limited women's full participation in sports. Producer: Dan Klugherz. Altana Films. 1976. 28 min., $395.

Distributors

Altana Films, 340 E. 34th St., New York 10016.

Butler-Freedman Films, P.O. Box 454, Cambridge, MA 02138.

Creative Film Society, 7237 Canby St., Reseda, CA 91335.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp., 425 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 60611.

Films Inc., 1144 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, IL 60091.

Learning Corp. of America, 1350 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10019.

Perspective Films, 65 South Water St., E.,Chicago 60601.

Phoenix Films, 470 Park Ave. S., New York 10016.

Pyramid Films, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406.

Time-Life Multimedia, Time-Life Bldg., Rockefeller Center, New York 10020.

Wombat Productions, Inc., Little Lake, Glendale Rd., P.O. Box 70, Ossining, NY 10562.

Single copies of this list are available for 10¢, with self-addressed stamped (28¢) envelope, from ALA, Young Adult Services Division, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611. Quantity discounts available. □

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Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

An idea for helping young persons learn something of economics comes from Joan M. Macey of the Binghamton (New York) City School District. She suggests that teachers present a hypothesis: A new business venture—an ice hockey team—moves into town. Then raise a question: What will its financial effect be?

The class will begin to understand the answer from discussion and research: First, there must be housing for the team and its dependents. Second, hotels, printers, advertisers, and food vendors all will have new business. Fans will get interested in hockey and ice skating themselves and buy equipment from sporting goods stores. On game nights there will be traffic and parking problems. Other entertainment establishments may either benefit or suffer. The smaller the city, the bigger the economic ripples will be.

As a climax to the discussion, Ms. Macey suggests, ask each child to draw a picture illustrating one aspect of the economic benefits or disadvantages of the new business and to caption it suitably.

Colorado schoolchildren in the towns of Frederick, Firestone, and Dacono, together created a Tri-Town Trilogy. Its purpose was to study the past, present, and future of their area.

According to Jack Gipson, Frederick eighth grade teacher, the students in each town were divided into groups, each with a specific purpose:

The Census Group (suitably cautioned against going into homes) took a census of the townspeople and compared their results with those of a special 1907 census.

The Business Group interviewed business people about the history and growth of their establishments. From their findings, the group projected future trends.

The Art Group was subdivided into three committees. The first designed and painted a mural tracing pioneer settlements, Indian displacements, mining activities, and the growth of government. The second dug clay and reproduced Indian designs and pottery. The third painted historical and documentary posters for the schools. This committee also illustrated a booklet published by all the groups.

The Environmental Problems group compared past environmental conditions with problems developing because of proximity to growing cities around the Rocky Mountains.

The Old/New Contrast Group compared the past with the present in such areas as automobiles, farming, mining equipment, and schools.

Group Six explored the history of the local mines and their importance to the three towns.

The Public Relations Group kept the public informed of the "TTT's" progress.

Through their research and sharing of information, the students—and doubtless many adults—gained a new understanding of the growth of their towns and of the West.

Some states have passed laws excluding pop-tops, but in most states those horrid little can openers are still being carelessly dropped to the ground. There they lie in wait for unprotected feet, both animal and human.

Pop-tops aren't totally useless, however. During the past three and a half years, children in Escondido, California, and their friends have picked up literally a million of them. Why? Because Carol Waters of Rose Elementary School wanted her second graders to understand what a million of something looks like. The class made plans, too, to sell their collection and use the proceeds to help someone.

At first only the children were collecting the pesky things. Soon relatives and friends became interested and joined the search. Worldwide publicity began, and packages of pop-tops started arriving from far away. Some people paid $2 in postage so they could send 500 of them.

The children did not count every pop-top by hand. Experimentation proved that 300 of them fill a one-pound coffee can, 2,000 a bread sack, 15,000 a large net bag for oranges. A large trash bag holds 50,000.

At last, in August 1978 (the school operates year-round), the fourth class to work on the project gathered in the millionth pop-top. Classes from other schools—in fact, the whole community—came to see what 1 million of something looks like.

One million pop-tops sold for recycling, bring in $261. But this princely sum will buy only a very small part of a seeing-eye dog (currently about $2,000), which is what these marvelous kids have in mind. So they and theirs are still collecting.

The best news is that Ripley's Believe It or Not Museum in San Francisco will buy all the pop-tops that the collectors pick up from now on for a good price. Ripley's believes that eventually the pop-top will be no more. Believe it or not.

We may be losing the war against litter, but at Crocker Highlands School in Oakland, California, they've really been trying to win their local battle since 1975.

It all began with the school's campaign to clean up the cans that littered the area and collect them for recycling. To add motivation, the school staff encouraged students to use some of the cans as materials for works of art. The cans were to be used as found, not bent by the artist.

Darryl Rosenheim, who organized the clean-up program and the projects it sparked, describes how the classes chose cans they had already collected for recycling; assembled glue, felt, straws, paint, lightbulbs, and boxes; and began what was scheduled to be an hour-long, school wide project.

But such was the students' enthusiasm that the hours turned into days, and a week later teachers looked around their classrooms to see, among other things, a replica of Marriott's Great America (northern California's

(continued on page 86)

Why did Mrs. Willard in Wellington, Kansas advise her students to purchase a Mead Trapper Keeper™ Notebook? For the same reasons you will.

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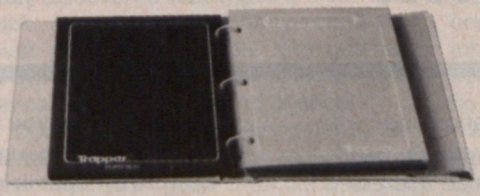

Most students keep the Trapper Keeper in their locker. Then, they just change Trappers from class to class, taking only one Trapper to each class. With no large notebooks to carry around, they travel light and easy. After school, they take the Trapper Keeper home with all the Trappers inside.

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Classroom Tips

(Continued)

answer to Disneyland), a mother giving birth, an old woman searching for a penny in the lane, a rock group, and innumerable mobiles, all cut from cans.

The Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation, which had agreed to buy the cans, offered prizes for the best "Can Art" project in each class. Kaiser eventually paid out a total of $650 (at 17 cents a pound) for the first year's collection. By that time, Rosenheim had used the cans as inspiration for a writing contest and as a basis for study of the metric system and even social economics.

In her contest essay, sixth grader Angela Baldo wrote,

> I am an aluminum coke can. I used to live on the shores of Lake Merritt. One day a girl came and picked me up and put me in a garbage bag full of cans like me. . . . I met one named Sam Fresca; he told me we were going to a place called *school*. I was excited because I had never been anywhere but in a workman's lunch, and then beside Lake Merritt. . . .

Arithmetic and metric problems were easy to make up: if cans are 4¾ inches tall, how many are necessary to stretch 15 meters? Students measured themselves in terms of cans and recorded the weight of can collections in kilograms.

As for the social economics: some students were unhappy because the proceeds of the can collection were divided equally among the classes. Older students felt they should get more money, since their classes collected more cans.

The system was changed to allow competition, but then some of the students began selling directly to the recycling company. Says Rosenheim, "We tried to check that by establishing accounts for each class and talking together about spending the proceeds on something we all wanted." The students chose such investments as playground improvements, field trips, and a visit by a mime troupe.

Crocker Highlands principal Carolyn Murphy was happy about the recycling program. "We take advantage of everything that happens," she says, and the can collection offered opportunities to use the basics in school experiences.

What do rock music and puppets have to do with teaching English? Jan Holder of the University of Georgia News Service reports that promoting a make-believe rock group is one way Kay Rainwater motivates her Greene County High School students to write creatively. "The students name a hypothetical group, pick a hit from an album they are supposed to have recorded, and work out a promotion tour and articles for such magazines as *People* and *Rolling Stone*."

At the same school, teacher David Muschell uses drama to give his students a positive attitude toward language, according to Ms. Holder. Muschell writes plays with simple plots for a handful of puppets and manipulates his voice to give the puppets distinct characters. He involves his students by getting them to write for the puppets also—skits, jokes, dialogues, commercials, television scenarios—anything to inspire respect for the right choice of words.

Along the same lines: "The main thing in dealing with poor readers is to improve their attitude about reading," says Kathryn Schnier of Martinsville (Indiana) High School. So Ms. Schnier reads aloud to her students. "They have to see that reading is fun. I'll just say, 'Here's something neat I want to share with you,' and they can relax and enjoy the story because they know I'm not going to test them on it—ever."

Elementary teachers have been doing this for years. Why not try it in the upper grades?

"It helps, too, if you make a fool of yourself once in a while by trying to imitate dialects or play out roles. Again, you're showing that reading is fun," says Ms. Schnier.

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great writing like O. Henry's "Ransom of Red Chief." Give the high school kids the opportunity (which they might not make for themselves) of savoring it. Make reading materials—newspapers, magazines, paperbacks—readily available to them. They may not see these things at home.

"Reading is like playing the piano or making free throws in basketball," Ms. Schnier says. "It takes practice."

I remember reading *Huckleberry Finn* aloud to slow classes. They loved it, especially hearing Jim's dialect, which they couldn't figure out in print. Their own grammar was of the "I ain't got nuthin' " variety, but when they were reading the easier passages aloud, they always corrected Huck's grammar so that he said, "I don't have anything." □

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Books

What's Happening to American English? by **Arn** and **Charlene Tibbetts.** Scribner's. 189 pp. $8.95.

American English is in trouble. Politicians misuse it to hoodwink and dissemble, advertisers misuse it to sell toothpaste, and college freshmen can hardly use it at all. Here the causes (and possibly the cures) are painstakingly analyzed by a husband-and-wife team of English teachers from the University of Illinois. In their book, the Tibbettses take a candid look at the problem, expose the villains who have perpetrated it, and suggest remedies that all who care about good rhetoric will want to consider.

In joining this popular fray, the authors take on some formidable foes. Not content with blaming the mass media or political leaders, they also cite school-related causes for the decline in speaking and writing skills. Among them are curriculum experimentation in the '60's, with the accompanying cry for "relevance"; structural linguistics, which spawned the so-called new grammar; and the endorsement of the new grammar by the leadership of the National Council of Teachers of English.

During a sabbatical year in 1976, the authors visited public high schools across the country, talking with teachers, administrators, and curriculum specialists and observing classes. What they discovered was ongoing disarray: a lack of philosophical unity, confusion over grading standards, and teachers grown callous to "their chaotic existence" of "instability and change."

During the 1960's, they contend, students wrote less and less, regardless of their teachers' good intentions to use literature as a springboard to writing. Because English programs became elective, teachers began to think of themselves as specialists in one genre or another, much as university professors have always done, and to shy away from the arduous task of correcting student writing. The more pleasant and, perhaps, more prestigious task of discussing literature became ever more attractive.

Traditional grammar texts were scrapped because of the influence of the structural linguists. In some cases, they were removed entirely from approved textbook lists. Confused about the new grammar and apologetic about the old, many teachers shied away from doing any instructing in grammar at all. Though electives in composition were offered, students often shunned them as too difficult. Writing tended to be "creative," graded inconsistently if at all, and returned with little or no critical comment.

Among the remedies the authors prescribe are a return to a modified form of traditional grammar geared to helping students write better; schoolwide involvement of teachers in correcting errors in student writing; and willingness on the part of parents, administrators, and university professors to share the responsibility for the improvement of writing.

For many of us in the trenches, this book comes as a welcome—and accurate—statement of the case.

Reviewed by **Marilyn Duff,** *English teacher, Troy High School, Fullerton, California.*

The Old School Tie: The Phenomenon of the English Public School by **Jonathan Gathorne-Hardy.** Viking Press. 480 pp. $17.95.

As most Americans probably know, in England the term *public school* means the opposite of what it means here. In England, the equivalent of American public schools are called *state schools.*

Gathorne-Hardy traces the history of the British public schools from their origin nearly 14 centuries ago as adjuncts of the church. Children were needed for choirs, and as they could not be kept singing all day, some attention was given to teaching them other subjects, especially Latin. Because the schools were few and widely spaced and travel was difficult, it was necessary for the schools to board their students.

The author has accumulated an enormous amount of information from church and school records, school histories, and factual and fictional accounts of school life. He traces a great number of schools through the centuries and supports every generalization by many examples. Indeed, at times I felt like the small boy who asked the librarian for information about whales. When he had examined the thick volume she gave him, he returned it with the comment, "There is more here about whales than I want to know."

(continued on page 88)

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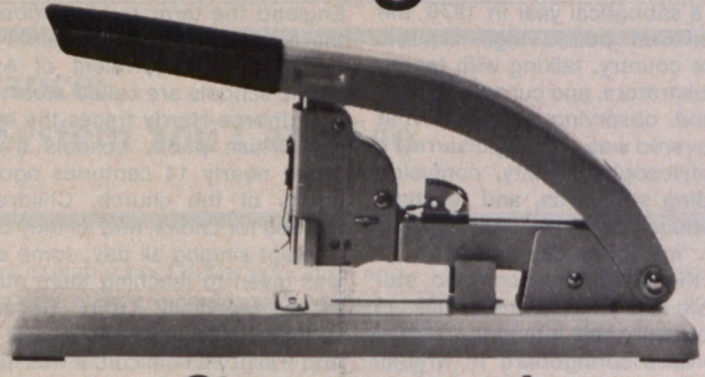

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 49

The Old School Tie is readable, indeed often entertaining—so much so that scholars will probably frown on it. A journalist, historian, and author of children's books, Gathorne-Hardy is not above explicitly interpolating his own opinions at frequent intervals.

Were it not for the violence that has flared in our own schools in recent years, readers would be horrified at the long history of cruelty among children that the author describes. Until well into the twentieth century, it was not uncommon for 100 boys of various ages to be locked up at night in a cold dormitory with no adult supervision. More often than not the masters were violent, too, and beatings of incredible ferocity were common punishments for minor violations of rules.

The author devotes much attention to sex. The masters were much concerned about, but not successful in, curbing masturbation and homosexual activities. Cold showers and strenuous games, long thought to be a palliative, actually proved counterproductive. Since statistics are lacking, the author draws often upon our own Kinsey report for corroboration of his conclusions about sexual activity.

This reader had expected to learn more about curriculum than he did. The explanation is that throughout their history the British public schools have been more concerned with inculcating social attitudes than with education in the sense of book learning. For example, by removing boys (and much later, girls) from their parents at the age of seven or eight, the schools cause children to develop an attachment to the group that children who continue to live with their parents during the formative years do not feel.

Gathorne-Hardy buttresses this interpretation by citing parallel practices revealed in studies anthropologists have made of primitive societies. In nearly all of these, children are removed from their parents, usually at puberty, to undergo training in their responsibilities to the tribe. Here, too, circumcision and other practices which inflict pain serve to imprint the young with tribal lessons of accountability to the group.

After an extensive analysis of the pros and cons of the public schools, Gathorne-Hardy concludes that in Britain they are going to be around for the foreseeable future. After a period of decline during and after the Second World War, school enrollments are currently booming.

Reviewed by **Gunnar Horn,** *retired head of the English Department, Benson High School, Omaha, Nebraska.*

New NEA Publications

Please use stock numbers (shown in parentheses) and enclose payment for orders under $10. Mail to NEA Distribution Center, the Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Rd., West Haven, CT 06516. The listing for this issue includes several publications of other education associations that are distributed through the NEA Distribution Center.

Classroom Discipline: Case Studies and Viewpoints. Sylvester Kohut, Jr., and Dale G. Range. Provides a bridge between the theoretical and the practical. Especially useful for in-service and preservice training of K-12 teachers and counselors. 112 pp. 1979. (1491-X-OF) $5.25.

Come Monday Morning . . . Academy of Fellows Monograph II. William E. Warner Series, American Industrial Arts Association (AIAA). 20 pp. 1978. (A641-21430) $1.25.

Concomitant Learnings: Hidden Influences in the Classroom. Home Economics Education Association (HEEA). Encourages teachers to look at what may occur in the classroom in addition to the planned activities. 159 pp. 1978. (A261-08432) $3.

Estimates of School Statistics 1978-79. NEA Research report. 40 pp. 1979. NEA members' price, (1659-9-0F) $3; nonmembers' price, (1659-9-1F) $8.

Guidance Functions and Counseling Roles in an Adult Education Program. National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (NAPCAE). 70 pp. 1978. (A751-01392) $4.

The Individual As Teacher: Caring, Creating, and Coping. HEEA. 52 pp. 1978. (A261-08434) $3.

In-Service Education Alert. NEA Research report. 16 pp. 1978. NEA members' price, (1658-0-0F) $1.50; nonmembers' price, (1658-0-1F) $2.50.

Interview Skills for Teachers. Student National Education Association (SNEA). Workbook/audio cassette tape program. Helps prepare would-be teachers for job hunting by dramatizing simulated job interviews and providing a framework for analyzing them. 42 pp. 1976. NEA and SNEA members' price, (A801-00502) $6; nonmembers' price, (A801-00503) $15.

Mathematical History: Activities, Puzzles, Stories, and Games. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM). Suitable for duplicating. 80 pp. 1978. (A301-09590) $5.

Mathematics and Humor. NCTM. A collection of jokes, riddles, limericks, and other just-for-funs to prove that mathematics needn't always be serious. 64 pp. 1978. (A301-09588) $4.

Motivation in Learning Multimedia Program. A comprehensive in-service training kit designed for K-12 teachers. For free descriptive information, write to NEA Publishing, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Parenting. Kevin J. Swick and R. Eleanor Duff. What Research Says to the Teacher Series. 32 pp. 1979. (1047-7-0F) 75¢.

Public Continuing and Adult Education 1978 Almanac. NAPCAE. 157 pp. (A751-01398) $15.

Reading and the Law. Robert S. Harper, II, and Gary Kilarr, editors. International Reading Association (IRA). 146 pp. 1978. (A351-00854) $5.

Sex Education for the Handicapped: Preparing Teachers. Four discussions on two audio cassette tapes. 1979. (1621-1-0F) $12.

Teachers for Excellence Can Save Our Children. Rev. Jesse Jackson. A one-hour address on audio cassette tape, originally presented at the 1978 NEA annual meeting in Dallas. A printed *Overview with Discussion Questions* accompanies the tape. NEA will contribute $1 to PUSH for each tape sold. 1978. (1622-X-0F) $8.

Technical and Scientific Writing. Sarah H. Collins and Frederick B. Tuttle. NEA Curriculum Series. 127 pp. 1979. (1718-8-0F) $4.75.

What Research Has To Say About Reading Instruction. S. J. Samuels, editor. IRA. 186 pp. 1978. (A351-00488) $6.25.

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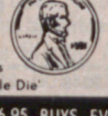

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The Door to Home Safety—A Consumer Product Safety Education Program for 7th, 8th, and 9th Grades. Curriculum guide for teachers, young people, and parents, designed to increase their awareness of product safety, accident causation, and major hazards associated with products in the home. Organized into six units. Each unit contains learning objectives and background information for teachers. Includes student-activity spirit masters. 1978. 35 pp. $4.50. Stock No. 052-011-00205-4. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

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Energy

Order the following publications from the Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Community Workers and the Energy They Use—Grade 2. Ideas about the effect of energy use on the livelihood of people in the community. Includes student and teaching materials. 1977. 80 pp. $2.50. Stock No. 061-000-00076-3.

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International Education

Days To Celebrate. Ruth Allan Miner. Provides information about special occasions throughout the year. Includes dates that mark astronomical events, birthdays and most significant accomplishments of people who were active in the cause of peace and social justice, and special days related to the United Nations. Focuses on global interdependence and outreach to people in all parts of the world. Designed for junior high and intermediate grades. 1978. 50 pp. $3. Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 1213 Race St., Philadelphia 19107.

Social Studies

Survival Books. Betty Hall. Order the following publications from Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, CBS Inc., 383 Madison Ave., New York 10017. Classroom workbooks designed to help junior high and secondary students in specific states in their transition from living with their families to living on their own. Reading assignments are developed around apartment leases, road maps, and bus schedules; mathematics lessons are developed around calculating tax returns and balancing checkbooks. Each workbook includes 19 areas of

practical living such as registering to vote, using a mail order catalog, and applying for a social security card. 1979. 160 pp. $3.39.

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Teachers and Teaching

Course Design—A Guide to Curriculum Development for Teachers. George J. Posner and Alan N. Rudnitsky. Written for undergraduate courses in curriculum development and instructional design or for in-service workshops for classroom teachers at secondary and postsecondary levels. 1978. 213 pp. $6.95 Longman, Inc., 19 W. 44th St., New York 10035.

Order the following publications from the Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Education in Action: 50 Ideas That Work. Short articles describing successful education programs developed and operated with initial funding from the Office of Education. Each program has been judged by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel and has been certified effective for use by other school districts. Illustrated. 1978. 128 pp. $2.75. Stock No. 017-080-1793-8.

No Easy Answers: The Learning Disabled Child. Designed for teachers and parents. Describes the behavior of the learning disabled child, points out his or her needs, shows how an adult can help structure the child's day-to-day activities, and outlines the development of a learning disabled child from infancy through adolescence. 1978. 131 pp. $3.25. Stock No. 017-024-00687-4.

100 Helps for Teachers. Stephen L. Alley. Activities designed to accentuate students' learning and stimulate students' interest. Includes sections on communication skills, social studies, and self-image building. 1978. 142 pp. $4.95. Brigham Young University Press, 272 UPB, Provo, UT 84602.

Television

***A Teacher's Guide to* The Advocates.** Provides some background information and possible arguments on various side of issues debated on *The Advocates* television series in 1979. Explains the steps in putting together the production—research, editorial decisions, and selection of participants. Contains skill-building exercises and a guide to each program. Free to teachers. Dept. of Radio and Television for Learning, WGBH Educational Foundation, 125 Western Ave., Boston 02134.

Television and Audiovisual Materials. Catalog. Lists cassettes and films of educational television programs produced by the Agency for Instructional Television (AIT). Available to educational institutions. 1979. 120 pp. Free. Order through your state department of education or from AIT, Box A, Bloomington, IN 47402.

Television, the Book, and the Classroom. Edited by John Y. Cole. Based on a seminar cosponsored by the U.S. Office of Education and the Library of Congress, this book addresses such questions as How can television be used imaginatively and effectively in the learning process? and What practical steps can be taken at the national level to integrate television, the book, and the printed word within the educational process? 1978. 128 pp. $4.95. Information Office, Library of Congress, Washington, DC 20540.

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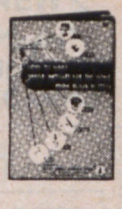

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Audiovisual Materials

Women's Studies

The following 16mm sound, color films are recommended by William J. Cuttill (with the assistance of Beverly Teach), Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, as representative of those that teachers can use to stimulate discussion of various topics in women's studies on the grade levels indicated. Further information can be obtained from the producer/distributors.

Battered Women: Violence Behind Closed Doors. 24 min. n.d. Depicts husbands' physical and mental abuse of their wives. Grade 9-adult. Motorola Teleprograms, Inc., 4825 N. Scott St., Schiller Park, IL 60176.

Have a Healthy Baby: Pregnancy. (Revised.) 22 min. 1978. Informs about fetal development and maternal/fetal health practices. Grade 9-adult. Churchill Films, 662 N. Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90060.

Wife Beating. 27 min. 1976. Discusses the centuries-old crime of wife beating and its emergence as a serious social problem. Grade 9-adult. Films Inc., 1144 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, IL 60091.

WOW: Women of the World. 1975. Uses animated figures taken from world art to give a history, from the feminist viewpoint, of women's role in civilization. Grade 9-adult. Pyramid Films, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406.

Nan's Class. 40 min. 1977. Presents the birth experiences of six women and their partners who attended Lamaze Childbirth Preparation Classes. Grade 9-adult. American Society for Psychoprophylaxis in Obstetrics, 1411 K St., N. W., #200, Washington, DC 20005.

Newborn. 28 min. 1977. Shows the abilities, reflexes, and working senses of the newborn from the moment of birth. Grade 9-adult. Filmakers Library, 290 West End Ave., New York 10023.

Nine Months in Motion. 19 min. 1977. Stresses the importance of physical fitness during pregnancy. Grade 9-adult. Perennial Education, 1825 Willow Rd., Northfield, IL 60093. ☐

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In-Service Education Materials

Help in Teaching the Basic Skills

Although we have been hearing a lot about the importance of basics, no full definition of the term has gained general acceptance. Everybody seems to agree, however, on one point: the fundamentals of the three R's—reading, writing, and arithmetic—are basic.

Teachers cooperating with NEA's In-Service Education Project have tested a wide selection of materials designed to help teachers become more proficient in teaching the three R's. The materials listed here are a few of the ones that they used successfully in their professional development programs.

Helping Teachers Develop Successful Readers is a series of tapes designed to invite study of and growth in the use of various methods of reading instruction. Topics include corrective procedures to use in teaching word recognition and in teaching comprehension skills, techniques for managing intermediate and junior high school reading programs, ways of motivating the reluctant reader, and ways of developing critical thinking, among others. A group of teachers from an urban school, who wanted to improve the reading skills of junior high students, used this product. They report that it would probably benefit other teachers facing the same task. Produced by Instructional Dynamics, Inc., this series contains six cassette lecture tapes and a discussion guide. It costs $54.50.

Literature for Thursday's Child is a book of techniques for teaching about literature that offers an abundance of suggestions for lessons. Four teachers looking for new strategies in teaching literature found the book informative, interesting, and helpful in planning literature lessons.

The book is published by Science Research Associates and sells for $10.36.

Another book, *The Reading Correction Kit,* describes techniques and materials to use in correcting specific difficulties in all the major reading skills. It is divided into four sections: a brief description of how to diagnose difficulties in specific reading skills; a precise definition of each reading skill; complete directions for making and using materials to correct specific diagnosed weaknesses in the reading skill; and actual sample worksheets, devices, and games.

Teachers working in an inner-city school used this product as part of their in-service program. They reported that it "offered a variety of approaches to enhance the learning of reading skills."

This is published by the Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc. It sells for $14.95.

A third book, *Corrective Reading in the High School Classroom,* also discusses techniques.

Teachers who focused on improving reading in the content areas for their in-service program recommended this book. They said its objectives were clearly stated and were very helpful in solving their problem.

This book is published by the International Reading Association and costs $3.50.

The modules in the Mathematics Education series deal with both general methods and methods of teaching specific concepts. Their overall purpose is to help the teacher improve the mathematics program.

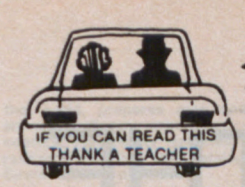
The in-service program in which teachers used this series emphasized helping students understand and use math skills. The five teachers from a suburban elementary school were highly satisfied, as, they said, the product made it easy for them to learn.

This series comes from the University of Georgia. Each of the 15 modules must be purchased separately; prices range from $1.80 to $3.00.

The NEA's information bank on in-service education products contains descriptions of other materials on teaching the basic skills. These offer teachers a variety of approaches and techniques for motivating and teaching students.

Any teacher working on an in-service project can gain access to the information bank by calling the toll-free number, (800) 424-9862, between 8:15 a.m. and 4:30 p.m. in the eastern time zone. (Teachers in the metropolitan Washington, D.C., area should call 833-4348.)

—**Ella Holly,** *NEA In-Service Education Project.*



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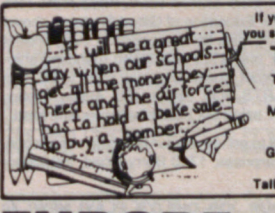

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